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**ENGLISH IN JOB ADVERTISEMENTS IN THE NETHERLANDS:
REASONS, USE AND EFFECTS**

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The cover illustration is a cartoon by the Ampzing Genootschap (Ampzing society). It depicts the Haarlem writer Samuel Ampzing (1590-1632) being confronted with a page from a present-day newspaper with job advertisements full of English terms and exclaiming "No wonder they can't find any personnel in Holland...!" (Ampzing Genootschap, 2004, p. 28). Reproduced with permission from the Ampzing Genootschap (www.ampzing.nl).

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**ENGLISH IN JOB ADVERTISEMENTS IN THE NETHERLANDS:
REASONS, USE AND EFFECTS**

Een wetenschappelijke proeve op het gebied van de Letteren

Proefschrift

ter verkrijging van de graad van doctor
aan de Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen
op gezag van de rector magnificus prof. mr. S.C.J.J. Kortmann,
volgens besluit van het college van decanen
in het openbaar te verdedigen op maandag 29 november 2010
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door

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geboren op 2 mei 1961
te Schiedam

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Martijn Nuijt, and my nephew and niece, Guido and Suzanne (“de dotten”).

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Frank van Meurs

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Abbreviations used in this study

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CBS	Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (Dutch Bureau of Statistics)
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CFM	Conceptual Feature Model
CWI	Centrum voor Werk en Inkomen (Dutch employment bureau)
D	(Maker/makers of) all-Dutch job advertisement(s)
<i>df</i>	degrees of freedom
E	(Maker/makers of) all-English job advertisement(s)
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ENL	English as a Native Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
EU	European Union
havo	hoger algemeen voortgezet onderwijs (senior general secondary education)
hbo	hoger beroepsonderwijs (higher vocational education)
heao	hoger economisch en administratief onderwijs (higher economic and administrative education)
L1	first language
L2	second language
lbo	lager beroepsonderwijs (lower vocational education)
<i>M</i>	mean
mavo	middelbaar algemeen voortgezet onderwijs (lower general secondary education)
mbo	middelbaar beroepsonderwijs (medium-level tertiary vocational education)
<i>N</i>	total number in a sample
<i>n</i>	number in a subsample
n.d.	no date
<i>ns</i>	not significant

Abbreviations

p	probability
P	(Maker/makers of) partly English job advertisement(s)
r	Pearson's correlation coefficient
RHM	Revised Hierarchical Model
RQ	research question
r_s	Spearman rank correlation coefficient
SD	standard deviation
vmbo	voorbereidend middelbaar beroepsonderwijs (prevocational secondary education)
vmbo GTL	voorbereidend middelbaar beroepsonderwijs gemengd theoretische leerweg (prevocational secondary education, Mixed Theoretical Track)
vmbo KBL	voorbereidend middelbaar beroepsonderwijs kaderberoepsgerichte leerweg (prevocational secondary education, Advanced Vocational Track)
vmbo BBL	voorbereidend middelbaar beroepsonderwijs basisberoepsgerichte leerweg (prevocational secondary education, Basic Vocational Track)
vwo	voorbereidend wetenschappelijk onderwijs (pre-university secondary education)

Chapter 1 – English in job advertisements in the Netherlands: Introduction, theoretical framework, and aims

1.1 English in job advertisements in the Netherlands: Introduction

The May 13th 2006 edition of the free Dutch newspaper *Metro* contained the job advertisement displayed in Figure 1.1.



FHM
FUN + HARD WORK = MONEY!

Wij zijn op zoek naar 10 personen die onze **sales & promotie** functies kunnen vervullen bij ons Internationaal Sales & Marketing bedrijf in Amsterdam. Heb je goede communicatievaardigheden, spreek je vloeiend nederlands en beheers je de engelse taal en ben je boven de 18? Wij geven volledig training. A fantastic opportunity to kick-start your future in Marketing.

Ben je op zoek naar FUN in je werk?
Bel dan naar Lieke op 020- [blurred]

Figure 1.1. FHM job advertisement, from *Metro* (13 May 2006). The telephone number has been blurred out to guarantee the anonymity of the advertiser.

Although most of the text is in Dutch, the job ad contains a number of English words and phrases, e.g. “FUN + HARD WORK = MONEY!”, “sales”, and “A fantastic opportunity to kick-start your future in Marketing”. The use of English in this job ad raises a number of questions. One question is whether this job advertisement is exceptional or typical of the use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands. It has been suggested that English is widely used in this type of text (Renkema, Vallen, & Hoeken, 2001; Schreinen, 1989), but there has been little empirical research that determines how frequently English is actually used. A second question is on what factors the use of English depends. The company offering the vacancy in this ad operates in sales and marketing, and it may be wondered,

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for instance, whether the use of English may, among other things, depend on the field of activity of the organisation advertising the position. A third question is why makers of job ads use English in ads which appear in countries where English is not the national language, such as the Netherlands. While insights have been gained in motivations for the use of English in *product ads* in such countries through interviews and surveys involving their makers (e.g. Alm, 2001; Baker & Van Gelder, 1997; Fink, Schons, Nolte, & Schäfer, 1995; Gerritsen, Korzilius, Van Meurs, & Gijssbers, 2000), no such empirical research has been carried for job ads. One of the most obvious aims of a job advertisement is to persuade suitable candidates to apply for the position advertised (e.g. Hilgendorf & Martin, 2001, p. 218; Jansen, Steehouder, & Gijssen, 2004, p. 424). Thus, the final question is whether the use of English contributes to job ads achieving this goal, but again there has been little empirical research to determine this.

The current study will attempt to answer these questions through a literature review and a number of empirical investigations. In order to explain why it is important to study the role of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands, the following section (1.2) discusses the function and form of this particular type of text. Section 1.3 presents the conceptual model of the use of English in job advertising in the Netherlands that underlies the various empirical investigations reported later in this study. Section 1.4 describes the aims of this study and Section 1.5 presents an overview of the chapters that follow.

1.2 Function and form of job advertisements and implications for the study of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands

Job advertisements are part of the first phase of the recruitment process. According to Barber's (1998) definition, "[r]ecruitment includes those practices and activities carried on by the organization with the primary purpose of identifying and attracting potential employees" (p. 5). Barber distinguishes three phases in the recruitment process (p. 13), which she labels "generating applicants" (p. 17), "maintaining applicant status" (p. 52), and "influencing job choice" (p. 94). In the first phase, organisations aim to

Introduction, theoretical framework, and aims

generate applicants by trying to persuade potentially suitable individuals to apply for the vacancy. In the second phase, organisations aim to make sure that the actual applicants continue to be involved in the recruitment process until they are either selected or not selected for the job. In the third phase, organisations try to persuade the applicants they have selected for the vacancy to accept a job offer.

Several researchers have pointed out how crucial the first phase of recruitment is in making sure an organisation gets the best possible qualified employees (e.g. Barber & Roehling, 1993, p. 845; Williamson, Lepak, & King, 2003, p. 243). Whether or not potentially suitable candidates decide to apply for a vacancy determines “both the size and the quality of the applicant pool” from which organisations can choose (Barber & Roehling, 1993, p. 845).

In the first phase of the recruitment process, an organisation first identifies what individuals it wants to attract (Barber, 1998, p. 18), and then decides what source it wants to use to reach these individuals (p. 22). One of the sources an organisation may choose to use is a job advertisement, which can be defined as a message in various media (in a newspaper, in a trade journal, on an organisation’s website or on a job site) announcing a vacancy in an organisation, which calls on suitable applicants to apply for the position (based on Hilgendorf & Martin, 2001, p. 218; Jansen et al., 2004, p. 424; Schütt, Kerschbaumer, & Wünsche-Piétzka, 2006, p. 11). Other recruitment sources may include employment agencies and direct referrals from current employees (for a list of recruitment sources used in the Netherlands, see Van Dalen, 2003, pp. 79-104). Although job seekers use the information from these recruitment sources in their decision to apply for a vacancy, their decision to apply is not solely based on these sources. As Barber (p. 38) points out, “[j]ob seekers begin looking for jobs with some mental image of at least some of the potential employers they will consider”. An organisation’s image has been shown to affect individuals’ probability of responding to recruitment efforts, where image, for instance, correlates with how familiar these individuals are with the organisation, whether they know someone who works for the organisation, whether they use its products or services, and how often they are exposed to advertisements for its products and services (Gatewood, Gowan, & Lautenschlager, 1993). The relationships that Gatewood et al. describe indicate some of the factors

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outside recruitment sources that influence job seekers' views of an organisation. In spite of the importance of such factors in determining an organisation's image, however, it has also been stressed that "early in the job-search process, job seekers typically know relatively little about the organisations and jobs for which they could potentially pursue employment" (Reeve & Schultz, 2004, p. 344; see also Barber, 1998, p. 34; Roberson, Collins, & Oreg, 2005, p. 323). When this is the case, it seems logical that recruitment material plays an important role in influencing job seekers' application decisions, since it provides information about attributes of the job and the organisation.

1.2.1 The importance of job advertisements among recruitment activities in the Netherlands

Research into the importance of various recruitment sources in the Netherlands shows that job advertisements are used by a larger percentage of employers than are other sources. This is indicated by data from surveys conducted near the beginning and the end of the period of the empirical investigations reported in the current study (2002 and 2006). A survey of 1054 Dutch organisations carried out in 2002 revealed that 84% placed job ads in newspapers or magazines, and that 55% advertised vacancies on their website, while 77% offered internships to fill vacancies, 76% used the social network of current employees, and 62% used temping agencies (Visser, Remery, Henkens, & Schippers, 2003, p. 77).¹ A survey of 9000 organisations conducted in 2006 showed that 39% placed job ads in newspapers and magazines and that 17% used their own website,² while business and personal connections were used by 27%, the Dutch employment bureau (CWI) by 17%, and both unsolicited applications and temping agencies by

¹ The percentages given combine the percentages of organisations which indicated that they used a particular recruitment source "regularly" with the percentages of organisations indicating that they did so "frequently".

² The survey does not explicitly state that this involves organisations advertising vacancies on their own websites. No explicit data are provided about organisations' use of job sites, other than that 6% used the CWI website (www.werk.nl) and that 11% made use of the Internet as a recruiting channel in a different way (CWI, 2006, p. 32).

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13% (CWI, 2006, p. 32). It can be concluded that, while the percentage of organisations placing print-medium job ads was much higher in 2002, it was still substantial in 2006.

The relative importance of job advertisements is not just demonstrated by the percentage of employers using them. Surveys among *job seekers* in the Netherlands conducted just before the beginning and at the end of the empirical investigations reported in this study show that job ads, both in newspapers and on job sites, were one of the most frequently used means of job orientation, with job sites becoming increasingly important. A survey of highly educated Dutch respondents conducted in 2001 indicated that job seekers used job ads more frequently than other recruitment sources: 37% of respondents used job ads in papers or magazines to search for a new job, 9% used job sites, and 2% used advertisements on company websites, while the second most frequent means of finding a job mentioned was personal contacts (28%) (BOA, BPA onderzoek Arbeidsmarkt 2002, as cited in Van Dalen, 2003, p. 53). Table 1.1 shows the results of a survey carried out between December 2005 and June 2006, both among students in tertiary education and among the general working population (NOA, 2006). The findings revealed that for both groups job ads in the print media and on the Internet (mainly on job sites) were the most frequently used sources for orientation on a new job or employer.

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Table 1.1. Survey of sources used for orientation on a new job or employer (December 2005 – June 2006)

Sources	Group surveyed	
	General working population ^a (<i>n</i> = 11,000)	Students in tertiary education ^b (<i>n</i> = 2,500)
Print media	83%	83%
Internet	75%	84%
<i>Breakdown of Internet sources</i>		
Job sites	68%	76%
Company websites	27%	39%
Job sites of daily papers	18%	18%
Public administration sites	17%	17%
Job fairs	2.6%	12%
Career books	1.6%	10%
Other sources	67%	77%

Note. ^aNOA, 2006, p. 12; ^bNOA, 2006, p. 14

1.2.2 The aims and audiences of job advertisements

There is a consensus in the research and practitioner literature that the main aim of job advertisements is to persuade potentially suitable candidates to apply for vacancies at organisations (e.g. Hilgendorf & Martin, 2001, p. 218; Jansen et al., 2004, p. 424). As Thorsteinson and Highhouse (2003, p. 2395) put it, “job ads can be viewed as persuasive communication designed to change people’s behavior (e.g. to encourage them to apply at a specific organization)”. According to Korswagen (1986, p. 19), in addition to being persuasive, a job ad is primarily informative, in that it gives information about the organisation, the vacancy, the job requirements, and the terms of employment. However, as Timmerman (1992, p. 85) observes, the information given in a job ad is subservient to its persuasive aim. The information serves to motivate suitable candidates to apply.

Potential employees are the main audience of a job ad, but they are not the only audience. Rafaeli and Oliver (1998, p. 346) point out that job ads also reach other groups: “the general public (including clients, customers, shareholders, and general spectators); internal or current employees; and other organizations in the environment” (see also Highhouse, Beadle, Gallo, & Miller, 1998, p. 792; Kaplan, Aamodt, & Wilk, 1991, p. 384). They stress

that job ads do not just contain “a recruitment message”, i.e. a message about the vacancy, but also “a message about the organization - an impression management message” (p. 347). This is also indicated by Korswagen (1986, p. 21), who observes that in a job ad an organisation presents itself to the outside world, and that readers, including customers, will form an image of the organisation on the basis of the ad. From this, it follows that the aim of a job ad is not just to persuade suitable job seekers to apply for the vacancy, but also to bring the organisation to the attention of the general public, although this is only a subsidiary goal (Jansen et al., 2004, p. 424). In connection with this subsidiary goal, the information in job ads may influence consumers and investors in their purchasing and investment decisions regarding the organisation and the products and services it offers, in what have been called “spillover effects” (Barber, 1998, p. 145).

1.2.3 The elements of a job advertisement

In order to achieve their primary and secondary aims, job advertisements contain a number of elements. As far as is known, there have been no studies of these elements based on systematic corpus analyses, but in the practitioner literature relating to the Netherlands a number of the content, layout and textual elements of job ads are listed. Content elements that are frequently mentioned are information about the organisation, the position, the requirements, the offer (benefits and salary) and the application procedure (including contact information) (Korswagen, 1985, pp. 24-36; Timmerman, 1992, pp. 130-136; Van Dalen, 2003, pp. 114-122). Layout features of job advertisements include an organisation’s logo and an illustration (Timmerman, 1992, pp. 106, 108; Van Dalen, 2003, p. 114). Textual elements include a job title, a headline, and an end line (Timmerman, 1986, p. 86; Van Dalen, 2003, p. 114). The most recent description of Dutch job ads (Van Dalen, 2003, pp. 114 - 122) lists the following content, layout and textual elements:

- job title: appellation indicating the position advertised;
- job description: tasks and responsibilities;

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- job requirements: the requirements an applicant should meet, for instance in terms of education and experience;
- headline: text in a large font which serves to draw the reader's attention; it does not have to be at the very top of the ad;
- company information: information about the organisation;
- offer: salary, fringe benefits, and working environment;
- application procedure: the steps an applicant should take to be considered for the vacancy, for instance, sending a letter of application using the organisation's contact information;
- logo: a graphic symbol representing an organisation;
- illustration: a picture or photograph;
- end line: an expressive phrase at the end of the ad containing a message from the organisation.

1.2.4 Empirical studies into the effect of elements in job advertisements and of the way job ad information is presented

It can be argued that an English instead of a Dutch formulation in a job ad published in the Netherlands falls into the category of presentation of information, because it describes the same content, although it may change the way the content is perceived, for instance through the associations it evokes. There has been only one empirical study of the effect of English instead of Dutch in job ads (Renkema et al., 2001) but there have been a number of empirical studies of the effects of job ad elements and means used to present job ad information, such as layout, information order and phrasing. While some studies measure the influence of such factors on attitude to the ad, the majority investigate their effect on measures that are more directly related to the central aim of job advertising, persuading potentially suitable candidates to apply for the vacancy that is advertised, i.e. measures relating to application decisions. In the various studies, different labels are used to describe dependent variables relating to application decisions. In the discussion that follows, an attempt will be made to describe these in terms of the four recruiting outcome variables distinguished in Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin, and Jones's meta-

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analysis of recruiting outcome studies: job pursuit intentions; evaluation of the attractiveness of the job and/or the organisation; intentions to accept a job offer; and actual job choice when a real job offer is made (2005, p. 929).

While the relevance of recruiting outcome variables to the primary aim of job advertising may be obvious, another variable, attitude towards the ad, has also been linked to this aim. Jones, Shultz and Chapman (2006, pp. 168-169) point out that the attractiveness of a job ad may influence its effectiveness in two ways, through the heuristic “Good companies design attractive ads” and through creating positive affect. Indeed, a connection between attitude to a job ad and recruiting outcome was established by Van Rooy, Hendriks, Van Meurs and Korzilius (2006), who, in a study of the effect of the use of different types of job advertisement, found that motivation to respond to the ad – which can be classified as job pursuit intentions in the terminology used by Chapman et al. (2005) to describe recruiting outcomes – was correlated with attitude towards the ad (such as respondents’ first impression of the ad, and their evaluation of its attractiveness).

The importance of elements of job advertisements in determining recruiting outcomes – as indicated by, for instance, job pursuit intentions, such as willingness to apply for a job – has been shown by a number of experimental studies. For example, the more job attributes are included in a job advertisement, the more interested respondents become in obtaining the job (Yüce & Highhouse, 1998, p. 344), and in job postings, location and salary appear to play the most important role in decisions whether or not to sign up for a job interview (Barber & Roehling, 1993, p. 853). The findings of these two studies illustrate the focus of academic studies into the effect of elements of job advertising on applicant attraction. Surveying research into reactions to recruitment materials, including job ads, Barber (1998, pp. 39-45) concludes that it tends to concentrate on *content* rather than style, and that it deals with two aspects of content: the impact of general information characteristics (e.g. the total amount of information given, and the degree of specificity of the information; for a recent example, see Feldman, Bearden, & Hardesty, 2006), and reactions to specific attributes of the job and the organisation (e.g. compensation, geographic location, and diversity policies).

While the majority of job ad studies thus focus on the impact of the content of the job ad on recruiting outcomes, a small number of studies have

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investigated such effects for the way the content is presented, i.e., layout, information order, and phrasing. For example, studying the link between *layout* features of actual job ads and the number of responses to these ads, De Witte and Vermeulen (1986, p. 109) found that the use of colour and the size of the ad influenced the number of people that applied for the vacancy advertised in it (see also De Witte, 1989, p. 215). In a similar study of responses to actual job ads, Kaplan et al. (1991) showed that advertisements with a large size, a logo and an illustration attracted more applications than ads without these features (p. 390). In an experimental study, Jones et al. (2006) established that layout features (such as bold font, illustrations, logos, white space) affected the job pursuit intentions of participants who were less able or motivated to read job ads carefully, but not those of participants who were more able or motivated to do so.

As for *information order*, an experimental study by Winter (1996) showed that this affected what he calls “applicant evaluation” of a job ad (p. 111), which is a combination of job pursuit intentions, evaluation of the attractiveness of the job, and the degree of likelihood of accepting an interview and a job offer. Applicant evaluation was found to be higher when extrinsic job attributes (e.g. salary and job security) were mentioned at the end of the ad instead of at the beginning, and when intrinsic job attributes (e.g. achievement and recognition) were mentioned at the beginning rather than the end.

Finally, an experiment carried out by Thorsteinson and Highhouse (2003) revealed that differences in *phrasing* in job ads affected participants’ evaluation of their likelihood to apply for a job at an organisation and their attraction to the organisation. Thorsteinson and Highhouse found that an advertisement scored higher on all dependent measures when it mentioned the *benefits* of applying for a job (“Applying now will gain you the chance to take advantage of our many benefits...”) instead of the *loss* involved in not applying (“Failure to apply now will cost you the chance to take advantage of our many benefits”). From this they conclude that “relatively minor changes to job advertisements (i.e., changes that do not change the nature of the work or the company, but merely change how it is described or presented) may lead to differences in the attractiveness of the organization” (p. 2408). As well as demonstrating that the way information is phrased in job ads may influence *recruiting outcomes*, Thorsteinson and Highhouse

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established that it may influence *attitude towards the job ad*. Ads with positive goal framing were perceived to be more credible than ads with negative goal framing.

The studies discussed so far are relevant in a general sense to a study of the effect of English in job advertisements on Dutch respondents, in that they deal with the effects of the way information is presented in job ads. There has been one experimental study, Renkema et al. (2001), which is directly relevant in that it has investigated the effect of English words and phrases in Dutch job ads, in terms of attitude to the ad and one aspect of recruiting outcomes identified by Chapman et al. (2005, p. 929), i.e. "overall evaluation of the job and/or organization". Renkema et al. established that there were no differences between job ads containing English words and phrases and all-Dutch equivalent ads in respondents' evaluation of the organisation and the job (image and exclusivity). They found only one difference in attitude to the ad: ads with English words and phrases were considered less natural than ads with equivalent Dutch words and phrases. However, it would still seem necessary to investigate the impact of English in Dutch job ads, since Renkema et al. did not investigate the impact on other measures of recruiting outcomes, such as application intentions, nor did they study the impact of all-English job ads. Furthermore, in order to generalise Renkema et al.'s findings, it is necessary to replicate their research, using other job ads. Another reason for replicating their research is that it was published in a non-scientific journal, and hence without a full description of the materials used and without statistics. In conclusion, the studies of the effects of differences in presentation of information in job ads discussed here indicate that the way information is presented may impact on attitude towards the ad as well as on recruiting outcomes, both of which have been argued to be relevant to the primary aim of job advertising. In spite of the limited impact of the use of English found by Renkema et al. (2001), these are therefore relevant aspects to investigate in experiments testing the effect of English as opposed to Dutch in job ads.

1.2.5 Implications of job advertising studies for the study of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands

The findings of the job advertising studies presented in Sections 1.2.1 to 1.2.4 have a number of implications for the study of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands. In very general terms, the importance of studying the role of English in this particular text type is underlined by the importance of job advertising in the recruitment process, and the relatively high frequency with which job ads are used in the Netherlands as a recruiting tool (Section 1.2.1). The discussion of the aims and audiences of job ads in Section 1.2.2 has indicated that the primary goal of job advertising is to persuade suitable candidates to apply for the vacancy that is advertised, and that the primary target group of job ads are potential employees. Although secondary aims and audiences have been identified, research into the effect of English in job ads in the Netherlands should investigate the impact of the use of English on the primary target group and how this use contributes to the job ads achieving their primary aim. In studying effects on a target group of potential employees in relation to the ads' aim of applicant attraction, such research would be in line with the majority of studies into the effects of recruitment advertising, and of recruitment practices generally (Barber, 1998, pp. 144-145; Feldman et al., 2006, p. 135). Section 1.2.3 has presented constituent elements of job advertisements identified in the literature. An analysis of the use of English in job ads should take these elements into account by determining in which elements English is most frequently and most extensively used. Finally, Section 1.2.4 has reviewed empirical studies of the effects of the way information is presented in job advertising, which included phrasing and the use of English. These studies, limited in number though they are, have shown that the way information is presented can affect readers of job ads in various respects. Two types of effect of manner of information presentation have been found: effects on recruiting outcomes, such as job-pursuit intentions, and effects on attitude towards the ad. The need to study recruiting outcomes is obviously in line with the primary aim of job advertising, and attitude towards the ad has also been linked to the persuasive aim of job advertisements. These aspects should therefore be among those included in an investigation of the effect of English in job ads in the Netherlands.

1.3 The conceptual model of foreign languages in advertising underlying this study

The conceptual model that will be used in this study to investigate various aspects of the use and effect of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands is an adaptation of the model drawn up by Hornikx and Starren (2006) to describe symbolic associations with foreign languages in product advertising (see also Hornikx, Van Meurs, & Starren, 2005, 2007). Such symbolic associations can be defined as associations with foreign languages that relate to qualities or characteristics of these languages or their speakers that are not objectively observable. The application of a model devised for product advertising to job advertising is motivated by the similarities between the two kinds of advertising. Both involve organisational communication through the mass media, for example newspapers and magazines, with mainly a persuasive aim, to convince the target groups to purchase the product advertised, and to apply for the position advertised, respectively. Both types of advertising have, in fact, been described as promotional genres (Bhatia, 2004, p. 62; Hilgendorf & Martin, 2001, p. 218).

Figure 1.2 shows a model of symbolic associations of foreign languages in product advertising adapted from Hornikx and Starren (2006). It combines the traditional sender – message – receiver model of communication, which goes back to Shannon and Weaver (1949), with an analysis of how foreign languages in advertising work, which is based on discussions of the symbolic use of foreign languages in advertising in Haarmann (1989), Kelly-Holmes (2000; 2005) and Piller (2001; 2003). The figure is explained in Section 1.3.1 below.

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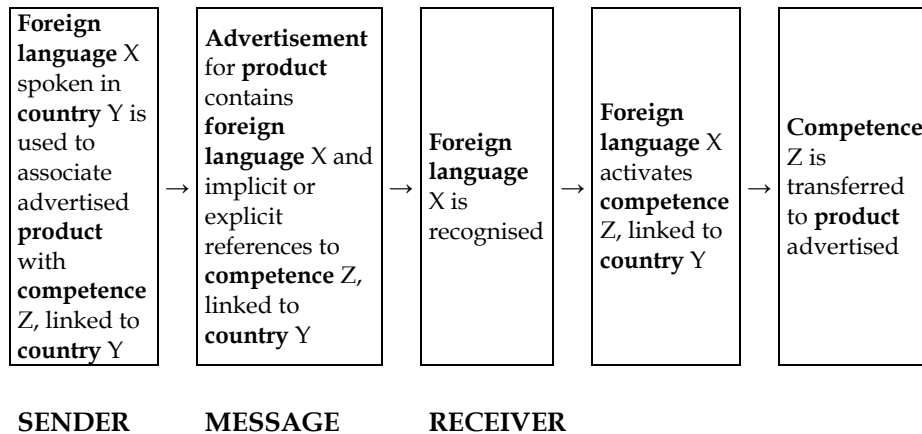


Figure 1.2. Symbolic associations of foreign languages in advertising from sender to receiver (adapted from Hornikx & Starren, 2006, p. 133; Hornikx et al., 2005, p. 72; 2007, p. 207)

1.3.1 Symbolic use of foreign languages in advertising

As Piller (2003, p. 172) points out, Haarmann (1984; 1989) was one of the first scholars to argue that foreign languages in advertising, for example English, French or German in advertising in Japan, were not primarily used to convey information, but because of the associations and the image they evoked, which Haarmann (1989, e.g. pp. viii, 280) calls their “symbolic values”, and which Kelly-Holmes refers to as their “symbolic meaning” (2005, p. 183) and as “linguistic fetish” (2005, p. 22). The associations and the image that a foreign language evokes in advertising are said to derive from the image that people in the country where the ad appears have of speakers of the foreign language, the country where the foreign language is typically spoken, and its culture (Piller, 2001, p. 163; Piller, 2003, p. 172), what Haarmann (1989, p. 6) calls “ethnocultural stereotypes”. Kelly-Holmes speaks of the “competences” that people associate with other countries and their inhabitants, that is, the qualities these countries and inhabitants are thought to possess and the products they are thought to be good at producing (2000, pp. 71-72; 2005, pp. 30-34). When an advertisee recognises the language in the advertisement, the competences associated with a foreign country are claimed to be evoked by the use of the language typically spoken in that country, as is depicted in the first two boxes on the

receiver side of Figure 1.2. The competences evoked in this way are then supposed to be transferred to the product that is advertised (Piller, 2001, p. 163; Piller, 2003, p. 172), shown in the box on the very right of Figure 1.2. To use an example given by Hornikx and Starren (2006, p. 133), the use of French in an advertisement for perfume in a country other than France may evoke the competence “elegance” if readers of the advertisement think of France and its inhabitants as elegant, and as a consequence they may think of the perfume as elegant.

The argument that associations evoked by the use of foreign languages in advertising are based on preconceptions about speakers of these languages and of the countries where they are spoken fits in with the findings of sociolinguistic research into language attitudes outside the domain of advertising. Several authors observe that attitudes to languages and language varieties are based on how the speakers of these languages and varieties are seen (see e.g. Edwards, 1982, p. 21; Giles, Bourhis, & Davies, 1979; Giles, Bourhis, Trudgill, & Lewis, 1974; Trudgill & Giles, 1978; Oakes, 2001, p. 32; Wingstedt, 1998, p. 13). As Edwards puts it, “evaluations of language varieties – dialects and accents – do not reflect either linguistic or aesthetic quality per se, but rather are expressions of social convention and preference, which, in turn, reflect an awareness of the status and prestige accorded to the speakers of these varieties” (p. 21). Thus, the association of symbolic meaning with foreign languages in advertisements can be seen as an application of a general sociolinguistic principle to advertising.

To sum up, in Figure 1.2 the possible symbolic associations with foreign languages in advertising are presented from the perspective of the organisation from which the advertising message originates (the sender of the message), the advertisement itself (the message), and those who read, hear or watch the advertisement (the receivers). The sender of the advertising message is thought to include a foreign language in the advertisement to evoke certain associations, to link the product to certain competences of the country where the foreign language is spoken. The advertising message includes a reference to a product or service, a foreign language utterance, and implicit or explicit claims about the qualities of the product or service, based on the competences associated with the country where the foreign language is spoken. The receiver of the advertising

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message is assumed to recognise the foreign language used in the message either consciously or unconsciously, and this foreign language is then supposed to evoke certain associations, certain thoughts about the competences of the country where the foreign language is spoken. Finally, the receiver is assumed to transfer these associations, these competences, to the product being advertised.

Considerations from literature relating to foreign languages and particularly English in advertising, and from literature relating to job advertising, suggest that, for job ads, the model in Figure 1.2 needs to be modified in a number of respects, which will be discussed in Sections 1.3.2 to 1.3.5 below. The proposed modifications will result in an augmented model, which will be presented in Figure 1.4 in Section 1.3.6 (p. 30 below).

1.3.2 Adapting the model to capture the symbolic value of English in job advertisements

This section will discuss a number of aspects of symbolic meanings of foreign language use in advertising that need to be added to the model in Figure 1.2 in order to capture the symbolic value of English in job advertisements:

- the symbolic role of English versus other languages in advertising;
- the transfer of symbolic meanings of foreign language use to
 - the sender of the advertising message;
 - the advertising message itself;
 - the job that is advertised;
 - the intended receiver of the job ad message, its target group.
- the impact of symbolic effects of foreign language use on
 - attitudes towards the sender of the message, the message and the job;
 - behavioural intention;
 - actual behaviour.

It will also present experimental support for symbolic effects of foreign languages on receivers of advertising messages in these respects.

Symbolic value of English versus other languages in advertising

A number of authors have claimed that the symbolic value of English in advertising is usually different from that of other foreign languages (Hornikx & Starren, 2006, p. 134; Kelly-Holmes, 2000, p. 76; Kelly-Holmes, 2005, pp. 67-77; Piller, 2001, p. 164; Piller, 2003, p. 175). Whereas foreign languages other than English are said to be used to evoke associations with particular countries and their competences, English is said to be used only in a minority of advertisements to evoke competences of specific English-speaking countries, such as the USA and Great Britain. In contrast to this limited use of English to evoke country-specific associations, it is said that English is used in most advertisements because of its status as a world language and the competences this entails (see also Cheshire & Moser, 1994, p. 462; Martin, 2006, p. 166). As Kelly-Holmes (2000, p. 76) puts it, "the English language has meaning, use and significance independent of the countries in which it is spoken", for instance as "a symbol of a national identity, of globalism, of youth, of progress and modernity". The suggestion that English is associated with an international and modern image is supported by the observation that makers of advertisements deliberately stay away from English words and use only the national language, to avoid "the trendy international associations that English words bring" (Kelly-Holmes, 2005, p. 79), because these would conflict with the traditional image of the advertiser the ad aims to project. Piller (2003, p. 176) observes that in advertising in Germany "English is portrayed as the language of a certain segment of German society, namely the young, cosmopolitan business elite." As a result, the reference to country competences in the model needs to be widened to include competences of typical users of English, not just in English-speaking countries but globally, such as modernity and globalism.

Symbolic meanings of foreign languages transferred to sender, message and receiver

Following Piller (2001, p. 163; 2003, p. 172), Hornikx and Starren (2006) suggest that symbolic meanings are transferred from the foreign language to the product that is advertised. However, remarks by other authors can be taken to suggest that the transfer of symbolic meaning extends beyond what

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is advertised, for instance to “the image of the advertiser” (Kelly-Holmes, 2005, p. 79). The suggestion that symbolic meanings are transferred from the language of the advertisement to the advertiser is in line with one of the general reasons mentioned for the use of foreign borrowings, i.e. that they are supposed to give prestige to their users, the prestige associated with the languages from which the words are borrowed, and their speakers (Hock, 1986, pp. 409-411; Ray, Ryder, & Scott, 1999, p. 85; see also Wetzler, 2006, pp. 27-28). If this argument is applied to advertisements, it is feasible that the transfer of symbolic meanings from a foreign language in advertising also extends to the sender of the message. Furthermore, in view of claims that the use of English in advertising in the Netherlands makes an advertising text more intelligent and interesting (De Raaij, 1997), the associations with the foreign language may also be transferred to the text in which it is used. Finally, Piller (2001, p. 180) argues that the use of English in product advertising in Germany evokes “characteristics of the implied reader”, more specifically, “a transnational consumer [...] characterized by internationalism, future orientation, success, and elitism, as well as youth and a proclivity to enjoy the good things in life” (see also Piller, 2003, pp. 175-176). It is therefore proposed that transfer of the symbolic meaning of the foreign language to the sender of the message (i.e. the organisation offering the vacancy), the message itself and its target group be added to the model (see the sender and receiver sides of Figure 1.4 in Section 1.3.6).

Impact of symbolic effects of foreign languages on attitudes towards the sender, the message and the job, on behavioural intention, and actual behaviour

The argument presented so far is that through the use of a foreign language in an advertisement the symbolic meanings associated with that language are transferred to the product that is advertised, to the sender of the advertising message, and to the advertisement itself. If this is the case, and if it is assumed that the symbolic meanings the receivers of the advertising message associate with a foreign language are different from those they associate with their first language, then advertisees may be expected to take a different attitude towards the product, the sender of the message and the advertisement than they would if the ad used only their first language. It is

therefore proposed that an adapted model of the use and effect of foreign languages in advertising should include a link between *symbolic meanings* associated with what is advertised, the advertisement, and its sender, on the one hand, and *attitudes* to what is advertised, the advertisement and its sender, on the other. In the case of job ads, what is primarily advertised is the *job*, but it is also important to persuade potentially suitable candidates that the *organisation* where the vacancy is to be filled is an attractive one (Chapman et al., 2005, p. 929; see Section 1.2). Consequently, it is proposed that attitude towards the job and attitude towards the organisation be included in the model.

Research into persuasion in advertising has shown that attitude towards a product may affect behavioural intention and actual behaviour (Hoeken, 1998a, pp. 44-50; cf. Kim & Hunter, 1993a, 1993b). It has also been shown that attitude towards the ad can influence attitude to the brand that is advertised as well as purchase intention (see the meta-analysis in Brown & Stayman, 1992, p. 46). Therefore, it is proposed that an adapted model of the use and effect of foreign languages in job advertising should include possible resulting effects of attitudes on behavioural intention and actual behaviour with respect to what is advertised.

The modifications proposed in this section are depicted on the receiver side of Figure 1.4 in Section 1.3.6.

Experimental support for symbolic effects of foreign language use on receivers of advertising messages

The theoretical model of the symbolic effects of foreign language use on receivers of product advertising messages described above is supported by experimental research. Hornikx et al. (2005, 2007) showed that identical advertising messages in different languages (French, German and Spanish) indeed evoked different associations in Dutch respondents. Similarly, Noriega and Blair (2008) demonstrated that the use of English or Spanish in advertising evoked different associations for Hispanics, and Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008) showed that the use of Hindi or English evoked different associations for Indian respondents. Moreover, several other studies have demonstrated that the use of different languages in product advertisements can result in differences in their receivers'

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- *attitude towards the product ad or towards the promotional website* (Hornikx & Starren, 2006; Hornikx, Van Meurs, & De Boer, 2010; Koslow, Shamdasani, & Touchstone, 1994; Luna, Peracchio, & De Juan, 2003; Petrof, 1990; Smakman, Korzilius, Van Meurs, & Van Neerven, 2009);
- *attitude to the product* that is promoted (Dublish, 2001; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007; Luna & Peracchio, 2005a, 2005b; Luna et al., 2003; Toffoli & Laroche, 2002);
- *behavioural (product purchase) intentions* (Luna & Peracchio, 2005a, 2005b; Roslow & Nicholls, 1996; Smakman et al., 2009).

Thus, the use of different languages in advertising was found to result in different attitudes and in different behavioural intentions. As was argued in the previous section, this suggests that different languages indeed have different symbolic meanings. Furthermore, Bourhis and Giles (1976) showed that the use of different languages in persuasive messages can even influence *actual behaviour*: bilingual Welsh speakers completed and returned more questionnaires when the request to do so was in Welsh than when it was in English.

It must be pointed out, however, that not all experimental studies examining the effects of different languages in advertising have revealed differences for all the advertisements or variables studied. A number of studies found that the use of different languages did not result in significant differences in the following respects:

- *attitude towards the product ad or towards the promotional website* (Dasselaar, Van Meurs, Le Pair, & Korzilius, 2005; Dublish, 2001; Noriega & Blair, 2008; Toffoli & Laroche, 2002);
- *attitude towards the product* (Dasselaar et al., 2005; Noriega & Blair, 2008; Smakman et al., 2009);
- *behavioural (purchase) intentions* (Dasselaar et al., 2005; Dublish, 2001; Noriega & Blair, 2008; Petrof, 1990).

Some of the studies that found differences in attitude towards the product only did so for some of the advertisements investigated, in some of the

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countries that were studied, for some of the variables constituting attitude to the product (Dubish, 2001; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007).

It must also be noted that, while the experimental studies reported here are about the effects of the use of different languages in persuasive communication, and compare the speakers' first language with a second language, not all of them are about the use of a foreign language in the sense of "a language as used by someone for communication across frontiers or with people who are not his countrymen" (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1972, p. 3). A number of the studies relate to communities in which the two different languages are used as languages of communication:

- English vs. Chinese among Hong Kong Chinese (Toffoli & Laroche, 2002);
- English vs. Korean among Korean bilinguals in the USA (Dubish, 2001);
- English vs. Spanish among Hispanic bilinguals in the USA (Koslow et al., 1994; Luna & Peracchio, 2005a, 2005b; Luna et al., 2003, study 2; Noriega & Blair, 2008; Roslow & Nicholls, 1996);
- English vs. Welsh among Welsh bilinguals in Wales (Bourhis & Giles, 1976).

These studies are not about foreign languages as defined by Quirk et al. (1972) and therefore do not provide direct evidence about the effects of foreign languages in advertising. However, the other studies discussed above do relate to communities in which one of the languages is the community members' first language and the other is a foreign language in the sense of Quirk et al.'s definition:

- Dutch vs. English in the Netherlands (Dasselaar et al., 2005; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007; Hornikx et al., 2010; Smakman et al., 2009);
- English vs. French in the USA (Petrof, 1990);
- French vs. Dutch in the Netherlands (Hornikx & Starren, 2006);
- German vs. English in Germany (Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007);

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- Spanish vs. English in Spain (Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007; Luna et al., 2003, studies 1 and 3).

None of the studies comparing the effect of a community's first language with a foreign language have investigated actual behaviour. Three of these studies (Dasselaar et al., 2005; Petrof, 1990; Smakman et al., 2009) have investigated behavioural intentions, and only one (Smakman et al.) found a significant effect of the use of the foreign language for one of the two ads studied. However, studies on the effect of the use of two different languages in persuasive messages on members of communities in which both languages are used as languages of communication have shown that the language used can affect behavioural intentions and actual behaviour.

Thus, although not all experimental studies of the effects of the use of different languages in persuasive messages have found significant differences for all the variables and all the advertisements studied, and although differences in behavioural intentions and actual behaviour, in particular, have only been demonstrated in communities where both of the languages studied are used as languages of communication (and not where one of them is used as what may be called a foreign language in a strict sense), it can be concluded that the differences that have been found in these studies provide some empirical support for the theoretical model as represented in Figure 1.4 in Section 1.3.6, in terms of the effects of different languages, including English versus a first language, on receivers of advertising messages.

1.3.3 Non-symbolic use of foreign languages in advertising

The model in Figure 1.2 explicitly aims to capture the symbolic use of a foreign language in product advertising. However, as Hornikx and Starren (2006) point out, foreign languages may also be used for *non-symbolic* purposes in advertising. In contrast to what was remarked about symbolic foreign language use, non-symbolic purposes may be defined as purposes for foreign language use which refer to aspects that are objectively observable in the advertisement or the real world outside the advertisement.

On the basis of a review of the literature, Hornikx and Starren (2006) discuss a number of such possible non-symbolic purposes. First of all,

following Alm (2003, p. 150) and Piller (2001, p. 163), they indicate that foreign languages may, for example, be used in advertising to attract attention (see also Domzal, Hunt, & Kernan, 1995). Secondly, the use of a foreign language may be part of a standardisation strategy, where the same utterance in the same language, e.g. a slogan or a brand name, is used by an international organisation in advertising in various countries to create consistency (e.g. Alm, 2003, p. 151); in this case, the decision to leave the foreign language utterance untranslated may also save money (Gerritsen, et al., 2000, p. 20). Thirdly, foreign languages may also be used for “practical information transfer”, as Haarmann (1989, p. ix) calls it. Kelly-Homes (2005, p. 24) refers to this as a foreign language’s “referential function, its utility as a means of communication”, when “the content, the meanings themselves are the essence”. This third function applies both at the level of the ad as a whole and at the level of words within ads. Ads fully in a foreign language may be used to reach those who are competent in that language, for instance minority groups for whom it is a first language living in a country where it is not a first language, such as Hispanics in the USA (see e.g. Foster, Sullivan, & Perea, 1989; Hernandez & Newman, 1992). Within ads which are not fully in a foreign language, individual words and phrases in a foreign language may be used to fill a lexical gap in the first language of the country where the advertisement appears (e.g. Gerritsen et al., 2000, p. 20). A fourth non-symbolic reason mentioned for the use of foreign words in advertising, specifically English words, is that they are short, i.e. shorter than equivalents in the country’s first language (e.g. Fink et al., 1995, p. 231; Friedrich, 2002, p. 22; König, 1974, as cited in Viereck, 1980, p. 252; Wetzler, 2006, pp. 300, 309).

Just like the symbolic reasons discussed in Section 1.3.2, these non-symbolic reasons can be related to the sender of the message, the message itself and its target group. Obviously, all of them may be reasons for the *sender* of the message to use a foreign language. In the case of job ads, saving translation costs is a reason which is particularly relevant to the sender of the message, i.e. the organisation offering the vacancy. Filling a lexical gap and the brevity of lexical items relate to characteristics of the job ad *message* and to the description in the message of the *organisation*, *job* and intended *target group*. Finally, attracting attention and using ads completely in a foreign language to reach target groups who are competent in that language are reasons that relate to the *target group*.

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It has been suggested that symbolic reasons are more important than non-symbolic reasons to account for the use of foreign languages in advertising, particularly when there are first-language equivalents available for the foreign language items that are used. Takashi (1990, p. 329), for instance, observes that “the primary reason for loanword use in advertising language is to make the product seem more modern and sophisticated rather than to meet lexical needs”, and Kelly-Holmes (2000, p. 71) says that a foreign language in advertising “seems to be used primarily for its symbolic value”. In order to capture the full range of reasons for the use of foreign languages in advertising, however, it is necessary to add non-symbolic reasons to the model (see the Sender side in Figure 1.4 in Section 1.3.6).

1.3.4 Foreign language use and comprehension of advertising

The use of a foreign language is a factor which is likely to make advertising messages more difficult for their receivers. Luna and Peracchio (1999, pp. 306-307; 2002b, pp. 574-576) explain the greater difficulty of an advertising text containing words in a bilingual reader’s second language instead of his or her first language with reference to the Revised Hierarchical Model (RHM) of the way words in different languages are processed by bilinguals (see e.g. Dufour & Kroll, 1995; Kroll & De Groot, 1997).

According to the RHM, words and their conceptual meanings are represented at different levels in the memory of speakers, the lexical level and the conceptual level, respectively. At the lexical level, there are separate representations for a bilingual speaker’s two languages, but at the conceptual level there is one unitary system, with links to the words in the two languages. In addition to these so-called conceptual links, there are also links between words in the two languages, so-called lexical links. The links between words and meanings are stronger in a speaker’s first language (L1) than in a second language (L2), because people usually acquire an L2 at a much later stage than their L1, and initially “access meaning for second language words through the first language and only later become able to conceptually mediate L2 directly” (Kroll & De Groot, 1997, p. 178). Because these conceptual links are stronger for L1 words, L1 words are easier to understand than L2 words. In addition, as Luna and Peracchio (1999, p. 307) put it, “the second language lexical store is smaller than the first language

store, which indicates a pervasive lexical (vocabulary) superiority of the first language over the second language” – more simply put, bilinguals know more words in their first than in their second language. The combined effect of these two differences between L1 and L2 explains why texts containing L2 words are more difficult than the same texts containing equivalent L1 words.

The RHM is visualised in Figure 1.3. The box representing L1 at the lexical level is larger than the L2 box, to indicate that bilinguals know more words in their first than in their second language, and solid lines indicate stronger links, while dashed lines indicate weaker links.³

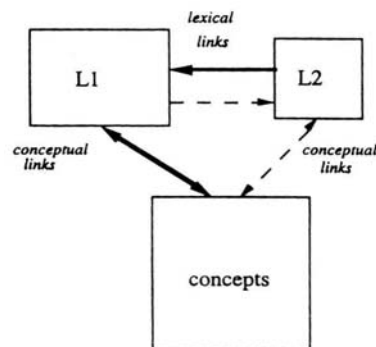


Figure 1.3. The Revised Hierarchical Model (Kroll & De Groot, 1997, p. 178).

In accordance with the RHM, experimental research into the comprehensibility of product advertising has shown that texts in the readers’ second language and texts containing second-language terms were considered more difficult than equivalent texts in their first language (Dasselaar et al., 2005; Luna et al., 2003) and led to more errors in text comprehension (Petrof, 1990). The meaning of individual L2 terms from such texts was also described less well than the meaning of the equivalent L1 terms (Dasselaar et al., 2005).

³ In addition to showing that the link between word forms and concepts is stronger for L1 than for L2, Figure 1.2 also indicates that the lexical links from L2 to L1 are stronger than those in the other direction, “because that is the direction in which second language learners first acquire the translations of new L2 words” (Kroll & De Groot, 1997, p. 179), which is why it is easier to translate from L2 to L1 than the other way around, but this has no direct bearing on differences in comprehensibility between L1 and L2.

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Comprehension of foreign languages has been shown to affect readers' attitude towards the ad. In a study of Dutch respondents' evaluation of French and Dutch slogans, Hornikx and Starren (2006) found that when French slogans were difficult to understand, respondents preferred advertisements with the corresponding Dutch slogans. In a similar study of Dutch respondents' evaluation of English and Dutch slogans, Hornikx et al. (2010) showed that ads containing English slogans were preferred to ads containing equivalent Dutch slogans when the English slogans were easy to understand. Thus the two studies demonstrate that the difficulty of the French and English slogans influenced attitude towards the ad, a variable which, as was mentioned above, can influence attitude to the brand that is advertised as well as purchase intention (Brown & Stayman, 1992, p. 46).

It is therefore proposed to add comprehension of the foreign language used to the model as a factor determining the effect of the advertising message containing the foreign language on its receivers, both in terms of the difficulty they have understanding the ad, or parts of the ad, and in terms of the attitude they have towards it (see the receiver side in Figure 1.4 in Section 1.3.6).

1.3.5 The role of context in foreign language use in advertising

Several communication models devised after Shannon and Weaver (1949) stress the importance of context in communication (e.g. Berlo, 1960, pp. 49-50; Maletzke, 1963, pp. 47, 78-87). In genre studies, too, the relevance of context, both corporate and socio-cultural, to the study of genres and genre features is underlined (e.g. Bhatia, 1993, pp. 16, 22-23; Miller, 1994; Yates & Orlikowski, 1992). Similarly, it has been pointed out that an investigation of "the relevant sociolinguistic situation" is important in the study of language attitudes in a particular community, and that such an investigation may include studying historical context as well as views of a language variety expressed by official bodies and in the media, among others (Smit, 1996, p. 44; see also Edwards, 1983, p. 234; Knops & Van Hout, 1988, pp. 6-7). In her discussion of language contact and language change, especially in relation to the borrowing of English words in German, particularly in German product

advertising, Wetzler (2006, pp. 27-30) also emphasises the role of extra-linguistic societal and socio-cultural factors. The element of context is not explicitly incorporated in the Hornikx and Starren (2006) model of symbolic associations with foreign languages in advertising. In the accompanying description, following Kelly-Holmes (2000; 2005), however, they point out that the links between countries and products/services and competences are based on contact with and information about these countries (p. 128). Kelly-Holmes (2000, p. 71) herself suggests that the symbolic value of foreign languages in advertising is “the product of intercultural social, political, economic, historical and linguistic relations between different countries”. In other words, people’s views of foreign languages in advertising, the foreign countries associated with them, and their speakers, are said to be based on the role these languages, countries and speakers play in the world, and the way they are depicted in the media. In this sense, socio-cultural context has a bearing on how people – receivers as well as senders of advertising messages – see a particular foreign language in advertising and what symbolic associations they have with it. Another, non-symbolic way in which socio-cultural context could influence the occurrence of a foreign language in the advertising message is the spread of the foreign language in society at large, or in domains relating to the organisation that places the advertisement, or relating to the product or service that is advertised. If an organisation operates in a domain in which a foreign language, for example English, is regularly used, or if a product originates from such a domain, that foreign language is more likely to be used in the organisation’s advertisements for the product. A domain may, for instance, be the sector in which the organisation operates. Although what is covered by the notion of socio-cultural context is very broad and many of its aspects may not be amenable to empirical research, it is proposed that it be added to the model, as a general factor influencing the use of a particular foreign language in an advertising message, and the symbolic values advertisers (senders) and advertisees (receivers) associate with that foreign language (see Figure 1.4 in Section 1.3.6).

1.3.6 A model for the study of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands

Figure 1.4 shows the conceptual model of the use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands that is used in this study, which is based on the model of symbolic associations of foreign languages in advertising in Figure 1.2, with the adaptations explained above.

On the *sender* side, Figure 1.4 presents reasons for the use of English as both symbolic and non-symbolic. Symbolic reasons are defined as reasons for language use that are to do with suggesting qualities or characteristics that are not objectively observable. Non-symbolic reasons are defined as reasons for language use which refer to aspects that are objectively observable in the advertisement or the real world outside the advertisement. The symbolic reasons involve evoking associations with the job that is advertised, the organisation advertising the vacancy, the advertising message, and the target group. The symbolic reasons that senders of advertising messages have for using English are determined by the symbolic associations they have with English themselves or which they think the receivers of these messages have, in other words, with the attitudes they themselves have or think that the message receivers have towards English as a result of the competences they attribute to English and its speakers. As was explained in Section 1.3.3, the non-symbolic reasons involve the sender's considerations regarding the job, the organisation, the message and the intended target group.

Next, Figure 1.4 depicts the *message*, i.e. the job advertisement. In such an advertisement, English can be present in two ways. The ad can either be fully in English or it can contain English words and phrases. The arrow from the sender side to the message component indicates that the sender's symbolic and non-symbolic reasons are reflected in the job ad message he or she places.

The final step presented in Figure 1.4 is the impact of the message, with its either full or partial use of English, on the *receiver* of the message. This impact is indicated by the arrow from the message component to the receiver side. It can be either symbolic or non-symbolic. The symbolic impact of the use of English on the receiver of the message is presented as the activation of associations with English that are transferred to the job, the

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organisation offering the job, the message itself, and the intended target group. The receivers' associations with English are based on their views of English and its speakers, in other words with the attitudes they have towards English and its speakers. The transfer of these symbolic associations influences attitudes to the job, the organisation, the message itself, and the intended target group. The impact of English on the receiver is not just related to this symbolic function, but is also non-symbolic, in that it may affect comprehension of the message. Comprehension of the message may in turn affect attitude to the message. Subsequently, attitudes to the job, the organisation, the message itself, and the intended target group may influence the receiver's behavioural intentions, i.e. job pursuit intentions, and actual behaviour, i.e. application decisions.

Finally, Figure 1.4 depicts the role of *context*: its influence on the advertisers' decisions to use English, on the use of English in the advertisement itself, and on the impact English has on the receivers of the advertising message.

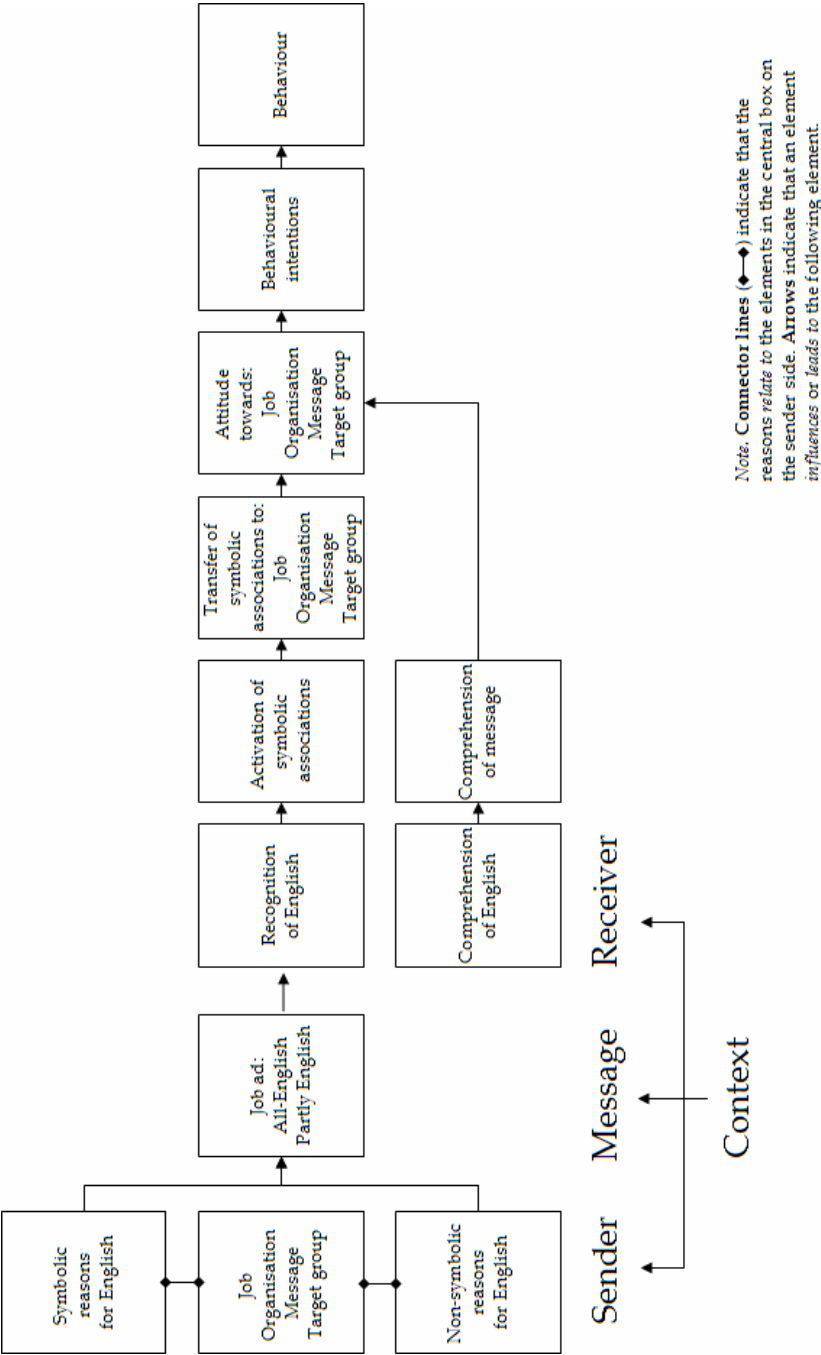


Figure 1.4. A model of the role of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands from sender to receiver.

1.4 The aims of this study

The aims of this study are to shed light on the use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands on the basis of empirical research into three of the four components distinguished in the conceptual model presented in Figure 1.4: sender, message and receiver.

The first aim of this study is to determine why the *senders* of job advertising messages in the Netherlands use or avoid English. This will be done through interviews with makers of job advertisements that probe their symbolic and non-symbolic reasons for the use of English or Dutch (Chapter 5).

The second aim of this study is to determine the extent to which English is used in job ad *messages* in the Netherlands, and on what factors this depends. This will be researched by means of systematic corpus analyses (Chapter 6).

The third aim of this study is to determine the effects of the use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands on their *receivers*. It will do so through experiments that test the effect of English versus Dutch in job ads on relevant target groups, in terms of a number of the aspects distinguished in Figure 1.4: attitude towards the job ad message, comprehension, attitude towards the job and towards the organisation offering the job, and behavioural intentions with respect to the job. It will also investigate the premise underlying the conceptual model, i.e., whether the use of English instead of Dutch words evokes different associations. These experiments will be presented in Chapter 7.

Where relevant, findings regarding these three components will be related to the fourth component, *context*, which is operationalised as the role of English in the Netherlands outside the domain of job advertising, for instance, how frequently it is used in product advertising and in Dutch society in general, how well Dutch respondents understand English in product advertising and in general proficiency tests, and what attitudes Dutch respondents have to English in general and in product advertising.

The methods used to achieve the aims of this study fall under the three types of methods of determining language attitudes distinguished in Ryan, Giles, and Sebastian (1982, pp. 7-8): direct measurement, indirect measurement, and content analysis of societal treatment (see also Garrett,

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2005, pp. 1251-1253; Knops & Van Hout, 1988, pp. 6-9; Oakes, 2001, pp. 30-31; Ryan, Giles, & Hewstone, 1988). The interviews with makers of job advertisements about their reasons for using English or Dutch can be classified as direct measurement, which involves asking people directly about their attitudes to a language or language variety. The experiments in which respondents are asked to evaluate job ads with and without English can be classified as indirect measurement, in which people are asked to evaluate languages or language varieties “without the subjects being aware of the purpose of the measurement” (Knops & Van Hout, p. 8). The corpus analyses of the use of English in job ads can be classified under content analysis of societal treatment, which is a catch-all term for all methods in which attitudes are not elicited by the researcher, but observed as they occur, for instance through analysis of the actual use of languages or language varieties in particular domains, or through analysis of existing comments on language use, for instance in the media.

1.5 Overview of the study

The remainder of this study is organised in the following way.

Chapter 2 discusses the role of English in the Netherlands – how widespread it is and what attitudes have been expressed about it – as a *context* for the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands, to explain why it may be used or avoided by the senders of job ad messages, how it is used in these messages, and what its effects may be on the receivers of these messages.

Chapter 3 presents published views about English in job advertisements in the Netherlands and other European countries where English is a foreign language (EFL countries). These views were found in newspaper and magazine articles, popular books and radio broadcasts, practitioner guides on job advertisements, and scholarly publications. In terms of the three methods of determining language attitudes distinguished in Ryan et al. (1982, pp. 7-8) discussed in Section 1.4, an analysis of these published views can be categorised as analysis of societal treatment of language varieties. Being expressions of their authors’ opinions, rather than being based on empirical research, they reveal how English in job ads in European EFL countries is seen by at least some opinion makers. They will

be used to investigate how the model presented in Section 1.3, which was largely developed on the basis of literature on English in product advertising, can be applied to English in job advertising.

Chapter 4 presents the research questions regarding the role of English in job advertising in the Netherlands that will be addressed in the empirical parts of this study, based on a review of the relevant literature. It successively indicates the need to determine why Dutch makers of job ads (the senders of the message) use English in their ads, the need to determine how much English is actually used in the ads (messages) and on what factors it depends, and the need to determine what effect the use of English in job ads actually has on its Dutch target groups (receivers).

The next three chapters describe the methodologies, results and conclusions of the empirical studies that aim to answer the research questions presented in Chapter 4:

- Chapter 5 reports on the interviews carried out with Dutch makers of job ads to find out their reasons for using or avoiding English (the sender perspective).
- Chapter 6 reports on the corpus analyses that were conducted to establish the actual extent of the use of English in job ads in media aimed at Dutch target groups and the factors on which this may depend (the message perspective).⁴
- Chapter 7 reports on the experiments conducted to determine the effects the use of English in job ads has on their Dutch target groups (the receiver perspective).⁵

Finally, Chapter 8 discusses the findings of the empirical studies in the light of the model in Section 1.3, their implications for the theoretical model, and makes suggestions for further research.

⁴ The corpus analyses reported in Chapter 6 were published earlier as Korzilius, Van Meurs, and Hermans (2006) and Van Meurs, Korzilius, and Den Hollander (2006d).

⁵ The experiments reported in Chapter 7 were published earlier as Van Meurs, Korzilius, and Hermans (2004), Van Meurs, Korzilius, and Den Hollander (2006b), and Van Meurs, Korzilius, Planken, and Fairley (2007).

Chapter 2 – The role of English in the Netherlands as a context for the use and effects of English in job ads

This chapter aims to provide a context for the use of English in job advertisements by describing the role that English plays in the Netherlands. As a backdrop, it first sketches the role of English in the world (2.1). The discussion of the role of English in the Netherlands (2.2) begins with a short historical overview of the influence of English on the Dutch language (2.2.1), followed by an account of characterisations of the position of English in the Netherlands within models of the role of English worldwide (2.2.2). Next, it gives more specific information about the role of English in the Netherlands, i.e. domains in which English is used in Dutch society (2.2.3), the role of English in foreign-language teaching (2.2.4), and English language proficiency and attitudes to English, both among secondary school students and the wider Dutch population, particularly in relation to the use of English in product advertising (2.2.5). The chapter ends with possible implications of the position of English in the Netherlands for the use of English in job advertisements and how this is received by Dutch readers of such ads (2.3).

2.1 Backdrop: The role of English in the world

The use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands is part of the spread of English around the world, which is the result of the political, economic, technological, scientific, and cultural power of English-speaking nations, particularly Great Britain and the USA (Crystal, 2003, pp. 9-10, 120-121). Crystal points out that Britain was the world's most important colonial power in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and the world's main industrial and trading nation in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, while the USA was the chief economic power in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (pp. 10, 120; see also pp. 82-83).

Mollin (2006, pp. 16-21) divides the history of the spread of English into four phases. The first phase involves the spread of English throughout the British Isles, from the 11th through the 19th century. The second phase is

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the spread of English by settlers from the British Isles to North America, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa from the 17th through the 19th century. The third phase concerns the spread of English to Asia, Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific from the 16th through the 20th century, when English was usually imposed as part of colonial rule. The fourth phase is the spread of English to “all regions of the world” in the 20th and 21st centuries; English is learned as a foreign language “because it gives access to a dominant culture and economic success” (Mollin, p. 21). As a result of these developments, English is used as a native language, a second language and a foreign language by speakers all over the world (McArthur, 1996, p. 11-12). It is used in communication between speakers from different countries in a number of domains such as science and technology, including academic papers and journals; the media, including the press, radio, television, and the Internet; international business, including business-to-business contacts and international advertising; and entertainment, including films and popular music (e.g. Ammon, 1994, pp. 1-6; Berns et al., 2007, pp. 20-23; 30-35; Crystal, 2003, pp. 86-122; Graddol, 1997, p. 8; Quirk et al., 1972, pp. 2-6; Seidlhofer, 2004, p. 211; Seidlhofer, Breiteneder, & Pitzl, 2006, pp. 4-5; Truchot, 2002, pp. 10-20). English is also a source of loanwords for many languages (e.g. Ammon, 1994, p. 2; Filipović, 1996, p. 37; Kachru, 1997, p. 225; Kahane, 1992, p. 214; Wetzler, 2006, pp. 24-30).

Attitudes to English in countries where English is not a first language range from negative to positive. As Kachru (1997, p. 230) puts it when he describes the “hegemonic roles of English in various English-using societies”, “[t]he reactions range from extreme love to hate, and ecstasy to agony”. Philipson (1992, pp. 35-36, 271) provides anecdotal examples of both negative and positive attitudes about English expressed in European countries where English is a foreign language. Surveys in various European EFL countries reveal positive attitudes towards the English language (Bonnet, 2004, pp. 90-91, 199; De Bot, Evers, & Huibregtse, 2007, p. 64; European Commission, 2006, p. 30; Mollin, 2006, p. 177). Both negative and positive attitudes towards English loanwords have been found in various European countries (for examples of negative attitudes, see Berns, 1990, p. 209; Busse, 2008, pp. 59-62; Hilgendorf, 2007, p. 143; Wetzler, 2006, pp. 38-45; for examples of positive attitudes, see Martin, 2006, p. 218; Spitzmüller, 2005, pp. 101-102).

Mollin (2006, p. 23) sums up the role of English in one sentence: “English is indeed a truly global language at the beginning of the 21st century, meaning that it influences all language communities, even those in which it is not spoken natively and holds no official status”. The Netherlands is an example of a language community that is influenced by English. How the various aspects of the role of English in the world manifest themselves in the Netherlands will be explored in the following section.

2.2 The role of English in the Netherlands and its possible implications for the use and effects of English in job advertisements

The use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands is part of the use of English in the Netherlands in general. There are studies which indicate that this use has a long history, and that English plays an important role in contemporary Dutch society, for instance by being widespread. Empirical studies also indicate that Dutch attitudes to English are generally favourable, that attitudes to English in product advertising are neither very negative nor very positive, and that Dutch people believe their English language proficiency is high, although there are also indications that they overestimate their command of English. These general findings provide a context for the use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands.

The majority of studies of the role of English in the Netherlands, especially the earlier ones, focus on English words used in Dutch (Claus & Taeldeman, 1989; De Hoog, 1909; De Vooy, 1951; Gerritsen, 1988; Posthumus, 1986; Van der Sijs, 1996; Zandvoort, 1964). There are a number of more general studies (Berteloot & Van der Sijs, 2002; Bonnet, 2004; Booij, 2001; De Bot, 1994; Gerritsen & Nickerson, 2004; Ridder, 1995), which cover a wide range of topics, including domains in which English is used, the place of English in the Dutch education system, frequency of use, attitudes and comprehension. These studies provide the basis for the account that is given here. They are supplemented by studies providing empirical information on specific topics, such as Dutch people’s English language proficiency and the use of English in product advertising aimed at Dutch target groups, and the

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effects that the use of English in product advertising has on Dutch respondents.

2.2.1 The influence of English on the Dutch language: A short historical overview

The history of the influence of English on the Dutch language has been described by De Hoog (1909), De Vooy (1951, pp. 11-27), Gerritsen (1988), and more recently by Van der Sijs (1996, pp. 302-326), mainly by referring to the English words that were borrowed into Dutch in various periods (for a brief English summary, see Berteloot & Van der Sijs, 2002, pp. 37-39). Van der Sijs points out that the oldest English loanwords date back to the eighth century, when Anglo-Saxon missionaries tried to convert the inhabitants of the Low Countries to Christianity (1996, p. 314). However, the number of English words borrowed was small until the nineteenth century (Van der Sijs, 1996, pp. 302-303). In the nineteenth century the number of English loanwords increased strongly, because of the leading role that Great Britain played in the domains of trade, industry, technology, literature and science (Van der Sijs, 1996, p. 303; see also De Vooy, 1951, pp. 22-25). There has been a particularly strong increase after the Second World War, as a result of the United States of America becoming an example to the rest of the world, culturally, politically, economically and technically (Van der Sijs, 1996, p. 303; see also Zandvoort, 1964, pp. vii-ix). It can be concluded that this English influence goes back a long time, and that, although it was not very extensive before the nineteenth century, it has been powerful in the last two centuries, and especially powerful for the last sixty-five years.

2.2.2 Classification of the position of English in the Netherlands within models of the role of English worldwide

Several attempts have been made to categorise the position of English in the Netherlands within the models of the role of English in the world: the English as a Native Language (ENL), English as a Second Language (ESL), and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) framework, and Kachru's (1985, 1992) concentric circles model. These classifications will be presented here.

The position of English in the Netherlands within an ENL, ESL and EFL framework

The role of English in Dutch society has been summed up by one Dutch linguist as follows: “The Netherlands is one of the countries in Western Europe [...] in which English has a very dominant position as a foreign language, and is developing into a real second language” (Booij, 2001, p. 346). Similarly, McArthur (1996, p. 13) categorises the Netherlands as an English as a Foreign Language territory where English is “[v]irtually a second language”, while he makes an even stronger claim about the position that English has in this country when he writes: “The high level of bilingualism between English and the national language in Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway, and Sweden [...] justifies the view [...] that English is no longer really foreign, but a strong second language that is steadily becoming nativised” (p. 10). The quotations from Booij and McArthur clearly indicate that in their view the English language plays an important role in Dutch society. While Booij does not give a definition of what he means by a “foreign” or “second” language, McArthur (p. 12) defines these terms when he divides the areas around the world where English is used into three categories, a division which he traces to the classification of English speakers in Strang (1970) and Quirk et al. (1972):

- English as Native Language (ENL) territories, where most people “have English as their first and generally their only language”;
- English as a Second Language (ESL) territories, where “many people [...] use English for specific social and professional purposes, and [where] in some places it has an official, educational, or other role. Competence may vary from native-like fluency to ‘broken English’”;
- English as a Foreign Language (EFL) territories, where “many people [...] learn English formally (using a British or American model) for occupational reasons; others may acquire it more casually, in the family, at a place of work, or on the street etc. Competence varies from fluency to survival level”.

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The position of English in the Netherlands within Kachru's concentric circles model

Just like in Booij (2001) and MacArthur (1996), the importance of English in Dutch society is indicated by Berns (1995), who categorises the use of English in the Netherlands in terms of the model developed by Kachru (1985, 1992) to classify the spread of English throughout the world. In Kachru's model, three concentric circles are distinguished. The "inner circle" contains regions where English is the primary language (e.g. the UK, the US, and Australia). In the "outer circle", including countries such as India and Zambia, English is not the primary language but one of the official languages or state languages, and speakers of English also use another language or other languages. Finally, there is the "expanding circle" of regions where English has no official status but functions as a foreign or international language, which includes countries such as China, Japan, and former countries of the USSR (Kachru, 1985, p. 12-13; Kachru, 1992, pp. 356-357; for criticism of the concentric circles model, see Bruthiaux, 2003; Jenkins, 2003, pp. 17-18; Mollin, 2006, pp. 26-32; Tripathi, 1998, p. 56). Applying Kachru's model to the European Union, Berns (1995, p. 9) puts the Netherlands, Germany and Luxembourg in a special category of countries ("expanding/outer circle") where English is not only a foreign language or international language (as it is in the expanding circle) but serves functions "in various social, cultural, commercial and educational settings".

Gerritsen and Nickerson (2004) further explore Berns's (1995) suggestion that the Netherlands is in between an outer-circle and expanding-circle country in terms of Kachru's circles of world Englishes by explicitly discussing whether the use of English in the Netherlands meets what they call general characteristics (Kachru's own term is "major features", 1985, p. 12) and functional criteria set out by Kachru to determine if a country can be placed in the outer circle. A problem with Kachru's features and criteria is that it is not always clear what they refer to exactly. As a result, Gerritsen and Nickerson partly used the same information about the status of English in the Netherlands to discuss different features and criteria. A further problem Gerritsen and Nickerson were faced with is that they did not always have quantitative data at their disposal, which meant that on occasion they had to resort to incidental observations. It should be

said at the outset that the Netherlands certainly does not share the historical aspect of outer-circle regions distinguished by Kachru, i.e. having been colonised by an inner-circle country for a long period of time (1985, p. 12).

According to Kachru (1985), the first major feature of a country in the outer circle is that English is “only one of two or more codes in the linguistic repertoire” of its bilingual or multilingual inhabitants (p. 12), and the second major feature is that English has “an important status in the language policies of most of such multilingual nations” (Kachru, pp. 12-13). Gerritsen and Nickerson (2004) describe the use of English in four areas to characterise the situation in the Netherlands with respect to these two features. They point out that English is the only compulsory foreign language in secondary education, that some secondary schools have English streams, that in some university departments English is the language of instruction (pp. 111-112), and that English is used in the internal and external communication of a number of companies (pp. 112-114). In relation to the second major feature, they specifically point out that, although English in the Netherlands is not an official or a state language, some companies in the Netherlands have made English their official company language (p. 114).

Kachru (1985) sets out three functional criteria for the use of the English language in an outer-circle country. In what follows, Kachru’s original criteria will be quoted, followed by Gerritsen and Nickerson’s (2004) observations. Occasionally, some additional remarks will be made that were considered pertinent to each criterion. The first functional criterion mentioned by Kachru is that “English functions in what may be considered traditionally ‘un-English’ cultural contexts” (1985, p. 13). As an example of the use of English in such contexts in the Netherlands, Gerritsen and Nickerson (2004, p. 116) remark that official wedding ceremonies in the Netherlands may be conducted entirely in English, although it should be pointed out that this probably happens only in a minority of cases, involving marriage partners who are originally from outside the Netherlands. Another example may be that many Dutch rock, pop and hip hop bands sing in English. This can be illustrated with reference to an encyclopaedia covering Dutch pop music from 1960 to 1990 (Steensma, n.d.). Of the 243 entries in this encyclopaedia that are devoted to individual artists and bands, 57% mention only albums and songs with English titles.

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Kachru's second functional criterion is that "English has a wide spectrum of domains in which it is used with varying degrees of competence by members of society, both as an intranational and an international language." (1985, p. 13). As Gerritsen and Nickerson observe, the domains in which English is used in the Netherlands include education, the external communication of companies aimed at Dutch target audiences (e.g. TV commercials, print advertising, annual reports) and the internal communication of some multinational companies (2004, pp. 115-116), as was also mentioned in the discussion of Kachru's major features. Although exact figures are not always available, it should, however, be pointed out that all-English communication in these domains is only used in a minority of cases (for education, see Ten Cate & Corda, n.d.; for TV commercials, see Gerritsen et al., 2000; for print advertising, see Gerritsen, 1995; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van Hooft, et al., 2007). Basing themselves on Vandermeeren (1999)'s survey of the use of foreign languages by businesses in Germany, France, and the Netherlands, Gerritsen and Nickerson point out that English is also used by Dutch companies to communicate with their international business partners, even though the majority of Dutch companies use their business partner's first language when communicating with German and French companies.

The third functional criterion Kachru distinguishes for English in an outer-circle country is that it "has developed nativized literary traditions in different genres, such as the novel, short story, poetry and essay." (1985, p. 13). This criterion is not met in the Netherlands. Gerritsen and Nickerson (2004, p. 116) note that "Dutch poets regularly publish their work in English", but this would only seem to be true for English *translations* of Dutch poetry aimed at a non-Dutch audience (for such translations, see e.g. Van de Kamp, 1994, pp. 366-410), and not generally for work originally written in English. Even though some Dutch authors may write some of their work in English (e.g. Gerard Reve's *The Acrobat and Other Stories* and some of Leo's Vroman's poetry), and the work of Dutch authors is translated into English, there is no Dutch literary tradition of writing in English, as is also pointed out by Van der Sijs (2004, p. 634).

Finally, Kachru (1985) defines the type of "English-using speech fellowship" constituted by an outer-circle country by saying that the English used there is a "norm-developing" variety (p. 16). Gerritsen and Nickerson (2004) discuss this as one of Kachru's functional criteria, and point out that

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Dutch speakers use English words with a meaning which is not found in inner-circle countries (for instance, *smoking* for what is called a *dinner jacket* in British English and a *tuxedo* in American English), that English words may be spelled, conjugated or inflected according to Dutch-language rules rather than the rules used in inner-circle countries, that English nouns may be combined with Dutch nouns to form compound nouns, and that Dutch people when communicating in English use Dutch sentence structures and Dutch pragmatics (pp. 116-117). The observation that Dutch people use their own variety of English (*steenkolen-Engels*, 'Stonecoal English'), with its own characteristics that are different from those of British and American English, is also made by Van Oostendorp (2000, 2002, p. 7), who argues that, rather than aiming at using British or American native varieties, Dutch people and other non-native speakers of English should use their own non-native varieties of English in international communication. Where some of Gerritsen and Nickerson's observations apply to English words used in Dutch texts, the question is whether this is a matter of Dutch speakers developing their own norms for English, instead of English words being adapted to the linguistic conventions of the surrounding *Dutch* discourse.

Gerritsen and Nickerson (2004, p. 117) conclude that the Netherlands "partly satisfies" the criteria that a country should meet to be regarded as belonging to the outer circle of world Englishes according to Kachru (1985). Like Berns (1995), they therefore find that English plays a role in Dutch society which goes beyond that of English in an expanding-circle country but is not as extensive as in outer-circle countries, which is similar to the observations by Booij (2001) and McArthur (1996) that English is more than a foreign language in the Netherlands.

These classifications of English in the Netherlands are useful as general indications of the role English plays. However, it would seem useful to go beyond the general labels and provide more detailed information in four areas: the domains in which English is used, the position of English in the Dutch education system, English language proficiency, and attitudes to English. The domains in which English is used and the position of English in the Dutch education system can be directly related to Kachru's (1985) criteria. The decision to discuss English language proficiency and attitudes on the part of Dutch people was based on Gerritsen and Nickerson's observation that, in addition to Kachru's criteria, comprehensibility of

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English and attitudes to English are also important considerations in distinguishing English as a Foreign Language and English as a Second Language (2004, p. 117).

The importance of the domains where English is used within the Kachruvian framework is shown by the fact that all three of Kachru's (1985) functional criteria for outer-circle regions relate to domains of English use, and that his two major features of outer-circle countries also manifest themselves in such domains, as may be deduced from the above discussion of Gerritsen and Nickerson's (2004) application of Kachru's framework to the Dutch situation.

The role of English in the Dutch educational system is explored because, as Gerritsen and Nickerson (2004) point out when discussing Kachru's major features of outer-circle countries, this is one area showing the official status of English in the Netherlands. The importance of English teaching is further expressed by McArthur (1996), who attributes the high level of English – native language bilingualism in the Netherlands and Scandinavian countries – which leads him to classify English as almost a second language – to “the successful long-term teaching of English to most of their people” (p. 10).

As for proficiency, Kachru (1985, p. 13) points out that there may be various degrees of English language competence in outer-circle regions, and McArthur (1996, p. 12) makes the same point about both ESL and EFL territories. Moag (1982, pp. 38-39) discusses proficiency as one of the features (“Type of English Bilingualism”) distinguishing various types of English-using societies. Crystal specifically operationalises speakers of English as a Foreign Language as learners of English with “a medium-level of conversational competence in handling domestic subject-matter” (2003, p. 68). Therefore, studies will be discussed that have investigated English language proficiency at different secondary school levels and among the wider population in the Netherlands.

Finally, Gerritsen and Nickerson's (2004) view that attitudes to English are important is backed up by the fact that one of the clusters of parameters that Moag (1982) uses to classify English-using societies is “[w]hether and to what extent public attitudes support English and convey prestige and high social status on its users” (as described in Leitner, 1992, p. 181; see Moag, pp. 35-37).

In the sections that follow, each of these four topics – the domains in which English is used, the position of English in the Dutch education system, English language proficiency, and attitudes to English – will be discussed in more detail.

2.2.3 Domains in which English is used in Dutch society

A number of the studies which describe English words used in Dutch classify these in various domains (Claus & Taeldeman, 1989; De Vooys, 1951, pp. 54-65; Van der Sijs, 1996, pp. 302-226; Zandvoort, 1964). The domains mentioned are many, ranging from sports and entertainment, youth culture and journalism to advertising, technology and business, which indicates how widespread the English influence on Dutch is.

English in the Netherlands is not just used in the form of isolated words and phrases in largely Dutch discourse, but also in more extensive stretches as a language of communication, as several authors have pointed out. To start with the presence of English in public places, the so-called “linguistic landscape”, Bonnet (2004, p. 47) observes that safety notices are often presented in English and Dutch, that a number of restaurants have menus in English, that many public information leaflets are available in English, and that bookshops everywhere sell English books and magazines. In the domain of entertainment, English series and films are broadcast with Dutch subtitles on Dutch television channels. Figures from Blockmans (1998, pp. 16-17) show that 76% of series and 65% of films broadcast on Dutch television in March 1998 were from countries where English is a first language. Bonnet (2004, p. 47) estimates that an average viewer is exposed to an hour of subtitled English a day on Dutch TV. Similarly, in cinemas English films are shown with Dutch subtitles, except for films aimed at a very young audience. Many Dutch viewers have access to all-English TV channels, such as the BBC, which broadcast programmes without Dutch subtitles (Loonen, 1996). Other sources of contact with all-English texts are music and the Internet (Bonnet, 2004, p. 140).

To move to more formal settings, English is used as a language of instruction in a number of bilingual programmes in secondary schools and in a number of courses in higher education. In the school year 2008-2009, 99 secondary schools offered bilingual English-Dutch programmes (De Bot &

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Maijers, 2009, p. 139). In 2007, the number of BA courses taught in English at Dutch universities amounted to only a few percent of the total number of courses offered, while half or more of the MA courses were taught in English (Oosterhof, n.d., p. 58), with some universities (Delft University of Technology and Wageningen University) teaching 100 per cent of their MA courses in English (Oosterhof, pp. 9, 31). In Dutch higher education generally, students are required to read material in English, although this percentage is higher for university students (96%) than for students at Universities of Professional Education, formerly known as polytechnics (65%; Ten Cate & Corda, n.d., p. 12). Furthermore, many Dutch scientists publish in English (Burrough-Boenisch, 2002).

As was discussed in Section 2.2.2, Gerritsen and Nickerson (2004) point out that English is also used in internal and external business communication in the Netherlands (for annual reports, see also De Groot, 2008, pp. 7 and 77). Specific figures about the use of all-English texts as well as of largely Dutch texts containing English words are available for print advertisements in the Dutch media, commercials broadcast on Dutch television and radio, and web pages aimed at youngsters in the Netherlands. Gerritsen (1995) showed that English was used on 19% of pages containing advertisements in Dutch newspapers and magazines published in 1994. In a later publication she described these findings in terms of individual ads: out of a total of 648 ads, 25 (ca. 4%) were completely in English and 137 (ca. 21%) were partly in English (Gerritsen, 1996, p. 68). Of the 325 advertisements from six issues of the Dutch glossy women's magazine *Elle* published in 2004, just under 10% (31 ads) were all-English and about 55% (177 ads) were partly English (Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van Hooft, et al., 2007). As for TV advertising, Gerritsen et al. (2000) found that English was used in approximately one third of the 128 commercials broadcast on the national Dutch television channel Nederland 1 in one week in 1996, five of which were completely in English (ca. 4%) and 37 of which were partly in English. (ca. 29%). With respect to radio advertising, English was used in 33 of the 84 commercials (39%) broadcast by Radio 1 and Radio 3FM, from Monday 23 February to Friday 27 February, 2004, but none of them were completely in English (Smakman et al., 2009). Of the 147 homepages listed at www.jongeren.pagina.nl, a portal aimed at Dutch youngsters, five (ca. 3%)

were found to be completely in English, and another 141 (about 96%) contained at least one English word (Dasselaar et al., 2005, p. 81).

Although quantitative information about the frequency with which English is encountered is not always available, the review of studies so far has indicated that all-English communication is found in many domains just as are English words and phrases in otherwise Dutch discourse. All-English communication is found in education and science, the media (television, the Internet), entertainment (cinema, music), and product advertising. Quantitative studies of English in product advertising and web pages aimed at young people show that all-English texts are less frequent than Dutch texts with English words and phrases.

2.2.4 The role of English in foreign-language teaching in the Netherlands

The important role that English plays in many domains of Dutch society is reflected in the position that English has in foreign-language teaching in the Netherlands. In 1986, English was made a compulsory subject in primary education (Bonnet, 2004, p. 45). The only compulsory foreign language, it is taught in the last two years of primary schools, usually for 45 minutes a week (Edelenbos & De Jong, 2004, p. 19). By the end of their primary school education, pupils will have received about 50 hours of English teaching (Bonnet, p. 45). As was mentioned in Section 2.2.2, English is also the only compulsory foreign language at all levels of secondary education (Bonnet, p. 45; Ten Cate & Corda, n.d., p. 5). The number of English instruction hours which pupils receive at secondary school depends on their school type. This number varies from at least 400 for the four-year prevocational secondary education (*vmbo*) programme, at least 640 for the five-year senior general education (*havo*) programme, to at least 680 for the six-year pre-university education (*vwo*) programme (Edelenbos & De Jong, p. 22). Bonnet (p. 45) points out that those who have attended school in the Netherlands from the end of the 1970s will usually have received at least four years of English teaching. It seems logical that these amounts of teaching should guarantee some degree of active and passive English proficiency.

2.2.5 English language proficiency and attitudes to English in general and in product advertising

This section will present information about English language proficiency and attitudes towards English in the Netherlands. It will begin by providing general, non-domain-specific data about these topics, first in relation to secondary school pupils and then to the wider population, based on surveys and language tests, among other sources. After having presented this non-domain-specific information, it will discuss the findings of experimental studies regarding the comprehension of and attitudes towards English in the specific domain of product advertising. The findings of such experiments were felt to be particularly relevant, since both product and job advertising are forms of organisational communication through the mass media with mainly a persuasive aim (see Chapter 1.3).

English language proficiency and attitudes to English among Dutch secondary school pupils

The figures cited in the previous section about the amount of English language teaching that Dutch pupils receive only provide a rough measure of their proficiency in English. There are two types of sources that provide a more specific indication of the English language proficiency of Dutch secondary school pupils. The first type is an evaluation of the goals of the programmes for English, as well as of some final exams for English, in terms of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, CEFR (Van Hest, De Jong, & Stoks, 2001, as cited in Edelenbos & De Jong, 2004, p. 24). The second type consists of surveys measuring secondary school pupils' contact with English, English language proficiency and attitudes to English (Bonnet, 2004; De Bot, Evers, & Huibregtse, 2007).

In the CEFR, the following six main proficiency levels are distinguished, from low to high (Council of Europe, 2000): A1 (Breakthrough), A2 (Waystage), B1 (Threshold), B2 (Vantage), C1 (Effective operational proficiency), C2 (Mastery), with two sublevels for each main level. A classification of the proficiency goals of English language teaching programmes in Dutch secondary education for reading, listening, and speaking in terms of these CEFR levels is presented in Van Hest, De Jong

and Stoks (2001, as cited in Edelenbos & De Jong, 2004, p. 24; for an English version, see Van Hest & Staatsen, 2002), specified for three school types, *vwo*, *havo*, and *vmbo* (listed in descending order of educational level). This classification is shown in Table 2.1. For the two highest school types, *havo* and *vwo*, the final exams were also classified in terms of the CEFR levels. Across all school types, the CEFR levels ranged from the second lowest (for programme goals) to the second highest (for final exams). The level of English language proficiency was higher for higher school types, and receptive skills were at a higher level than productive skills. More recent studies which relate exams for specific skills to the CEFR framework show similar results (for listening, see Cito, 2007; for reading, see Noijons & Kuijper, 2006a, 2006b). According to the standard agreed to by Dutch secondary schools with bilingual Dutch-English programmes, the goal for pupils at bilingual pre-university education is to obtain the Language A2 certificate of the International Baccalaureate for English language proficiency (Europees Platform, 2003; see also Huibregtse, 2001, p. 7), which is said to be roughly equivalent to CEFR C1 level (International Baccalaureate, personal communication, 15 April 2010), or a CEFR level between B2 and C1 (O. van Wilgenburg, Europees Platform, personal communication, 21 April 2010).

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Table 2.1. Levels of the exam programme goals for English in Dutch secondary education expressed in CEFR terms (the actual level of the exams is indicated between brackets) (Van Hest, De Jong, & Stoks, 2001, as cited in Edelenbos & De Jong, 2004, p. 24).

School type	Reading	Listening	Speaking
vwo (pre-university education)	B2.2 (C1.1)	B2.2 (C1.1)	B2.1 (B1.2)
havo (senior general secondary education)	B2.1 (B2.2)	B2.1	B1.2 (B1.2)
vmbo GTL (prevocational secondary education, Mixed Theoretical Track)	B1.2	-	-
vmbo KBL (prevocational secondary education, Advanced Vocational Track)	B1.1	B1.1	A2.2
vmbo BBL (prevocational secondary education, Basic Vocational Track)	B1.1	A2.2	A2.1

Note. vwo = voorbereidend wetenschappelijk onderwijs; havo = hoger algemeen voortgezet onderwijs; vmbo = voorbereidend middelbaar beroepsonderwijs; GTL gemengd theoretische leerweg; KBL = kaderberoepsgerichte leerweg; BBL = basisberoepsgerichte leerweg; '-' = not investigated

Two surveys measuring secondary school pupils' contact with English, English language proficiency (determined through self-assessment and tests) and attitudes to English were conducted in a number of European countries including the Netherlands (Bonnet, 2004; De Bot, Evers, & Huibregtse, 2007). Bonnet (2004) reports on a survey conducted in 2002 among 1555 Dutch secondary school pupils. De Bot, Evers, and Huibregtse (2007) report on a survey carried out between 1995 and 2000 among 1128 Dutch secondary school pupils at three levels of education (*mavo*⁶, *havo*, *vwo*), of whom 328 attended bilingual pre-university education (bilingual education group) and the remainder attended non-bilingual education (normal education group) (Berns, 2007, p. 48). The results of the surveys are displayed in Table 2.2.

The surveys showed that television and popular music were important means of *contact with English*, since the vast majority of pupils watched English-language programmes and listen to songs with English

⁶ *Mavo* is "lower general secondary education" (a three- or four-year secondary education programme, below *havo*), which in 1999 was merged with *lbo* to form *vmbo*.

lyrics. The pupils' self-assessment of their *English language proficiency* indicated that they had a rather high estimation of their own reading, listening and writing skills in English. As for language proficiency revealed by tests, it was found that the Dutch pupils scored satisfactorily on an oral comprehension (listening) test, scored quite high on a reading comprehension test, scored reasonably well on a linguistic competence (grammar) test and obtained less than sufficient scores on a written production test. It was found that pupils at higher school types obtained higher scores than pupils from lower school types (Bonnet, 2004, p. 139). On a vocabulary test, the pupils from the normal education group scored reasonably well, and the pupils from the bilingual education group obtained quite high scores. The pupils' *attitudes to English* were found to be positive; they liked English, and considered English to be important. The results from the De Bot et al. (2007) survey indicated that the bilingual education group watched more English language television programmes, had higher self-assessment of their English language skills, scored better in English language proficiency tests and had more positive attitudes to English than did the normal education group.

Thus, similar to what is suggested by the evaluation of English language programmes and tests at secondary schools in the Netherlands, the results of the language proficiency tests in Bonnet (2004) and De Bot et al. (2007) indicate that passive skills are at a higher level than active skills, and that pupils at higher types of secondary education have better English language skills. In addition, the questionnaire results show that pupils are regularly exposed to English through English-language TV programmes, that they have a high estimation of their own English language proficiency, and that they take a positive attitude to English.

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Table 2.2. Survey results concerning Dutch secondary school pupils' contact with English, English language proficiency and attitudes to English

	Monolingual secondary education (1995 – 2000) ¹	Bilingual pre-university secondary education (1995 – 2000) ¹	Secondary education (2002) ²
<i>Contact with English</i>	<i>Engagement in this activity</i>		
Watching English TV programmes	91%	98%	76%
Listening to English- language songs	82% ³	90% ³	76% ⁴
<i>Self-assessment of English proficiency</i>	<i>1=bad; 4=good</i>		<i>Evaluated as (rather) easy</i>
Listening	3.3	3.7	95%
Reading	3.2	3.6	87%
Speaking	3.1	3.3	-
Writing	2.9	3.3	87%
<i>Tests of English proficiency</i>	<i>Correctly identified English words</i>		<i>Questions answered correctly</i>
Listening	-	-	62%
Reading	-	-	77%
Speaking	-	-	-
Writing	-	-	46%
Grammar	-	-	65%
Vocabulary	62%	86%	-
<i>Attitudes to English</i>	<i>1= not at all; 4= very much</i>		<i>(Rather) liked English</i>
Likeability of English	3.2	3.5	77%
	<i>1=not at all; 4=very</i>		<i>Very or rather important</i>
Importance of English	3.4	3.7	82%

Note. ¹De Bot et al., 2007, pp. 59, 60, 61, 67, 68; ²Bonnet, 2004, pp. 69-72, 77, 86, 89, 90. No distinction was made between bilingual and monolingual education; ³Only or mainly English lyrics; ⁴More to music with English texts than with Dutch texts; '-' = not investigated.

English language proficiency and attitudes to English among the wider Dutch population

A high self-assessment of English language proficiency and positive attitudes to English have not just been found among Dutch secondary school pupils, but also in surveys and tests conducted among a wider range of the Dutch population.

In a Eurobarometer survey carried out at the end of 2005 among a random sample of 1,032 inhabitants of the Netherlands aged 15 or older, 87% of the respondents claimed that they spoke English well enough to take part in a conversation (European Commission, 2006, p. 13). Of those who claimed this to be the case, 32% said their English was very good, 58% said it was good, and 9% said it was basic (European Commission, Annex, D48f.2). As for positive attitudes to English, 94% of the respondents indicated that English was the most useful foreign language to know for their personal development and career (European Commission, p. 32). The survey also provided some supporting evidence for the widespread use of English in the Netherlands. Thirty-eight per cent of respondents claimed that they used English almost every day (European Commission, Annex, QASD3a).

In a survey of language skills and attitudes, De Bot and Weltens (1997) found that adult native speakers of Dutch rated their English language abilities rather highly (3.8 on a five-point scale), and that they ranked English as the second most important language for them to speak (following Dutch). They also rated English high on status and socio-economic value, in fact equally high as Dutch (3.8 on a five-point scale), although they did not rate speakers of English as very attractive (2.3 on a five-point scale, which was about the same score as that for speakers of Dutch, German and Turkish).

Van Onna and Jansen (2006c) tested the estimated and actual listening, reading and writing skills in English (as well as in Dutch, French and German) of 293 Dutch employees from 10 organisations in the Netherlands, using the DIALANG computerised test, which ranks skills in CEFR terms (the findings are also partly reported in Van Onna & Jansen, 2006a, 2006b). They, too, found that the respondents had a relatively high estimation of their English proficiency, but also that their actual proficiency for each of the three skills tested was significantly lower. For each of the

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three skills, the majority of respondents estimated their proficiency at the B1, B2 or C1 level, while the actual proficiency of the majority of the respondents was at the A2, B1 or B2 level.

These fairly large-scale surveys and tests indicate that general attitudes to English in the Netherlands are largely positive. The findings from De Bot and Weltens' (1997) survey, in fact, indicated that Dutch respondents' attitudes to English and Dutch were equally positive in many respects. However, there is also some evidence that attitudes to English are not always favourable. Withagen and Boves (1991) conducted a survey and an experiment to determine reactions to English words and Dutch equivalents among 61 respondents in two different age groups (twenty- to thirty-year-olds, and over-fifty-year-olds) with either a high or a low education background (*lbo*⁷/*mavo* vs. university/polytechnic). While the over-50s regarded someone who uses many English words as friendly and dependable, and while young respondents with a low education were impressed by English, young highly-educated respondents were not impressed by it and thought it exaggerated. There is also more incidental evidence of opposition to the use of English. Van der Sijs (1996, p. 306) points out that Dutch purists began opposing English loanwords in the twentieth century. Ridder (1995, p. 48) refers to several contributions to the magazine about the Dutch language *Onze Taal*, in which the use of English is condemned and seen as a threat to Dutch. To give a more recent example, in 2005, Tiggeler and Doeve (n.d.) published a booklet entitled *De taalvervuilingsAward: het lelijkste Nederengels ooit* [the language pollution award: the ugliest Dutch English ever], which ridicules fashionable English used by Dutch people. There are also a number of organisations which oppose the use of "unnecessary" English words in Dutch, such as the Ampzing Genootschap [Ampzing Society] (<http://www.ampzing.nl>) and Stichting Nederlands [Foundation Dutch] (<http://www.stichting-nederlands.nl>) (for more information about these and similar organisations, see Grezel, 2007).

⁷ *Lbo* is "lower vocational education", a four-year secondary-school education programme, which in 1999 was merged with *mavo* to form *vmbo*.

Attitudes to and comprehension of English in product advertising in the Netherlands

A number of studies have experimentally investigated Dutch respondents' attitudes to and comprehension of English in product advertising. Some of these have measured responses to all-English or partly English ads without comparing them to all-Dutch equivalents (Gerritsen, 1996; Gerritsen et al., 2000), while others have compared responses to all-English or partly English texts with responses to all-Dutch equivalent texts (Dasselaar et al., 2005; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007; Hornikx et al., 2010; Smakman et al., 2009). Some of these investigations have compared responses from people belonging to different age groups (Gerritsen, 1996), different educational levels (Smakman et al., 2009), or different age groups and educational levels (Gerritsen et al., 2000), while the others have focussed on one target group. Because of these methodological differences, the findings of the various studies cannot always be directly compared.

Gerritsen (1996) studied the appreciation and comprehension of English in all-English product advertisements from Dutch newspapers and magazines among respondents who had attended the highest level of Dutch secondary education. She found that younger people (under 25 years old) were significantly more positive than older people (over 45 years old) about the English used in these ads, and that even young respondents were not particularly positive. The findings for all respondents together were reported in another study (Gerritsen et al., 2000, p. 18), which indicated that their attitude to the English used was slightly above the neutral midpoint (2.7 on a scale where 1 = positive and 5 = negative). As for comprehension, about 70% of respondents claimed they were able to translate the English used in the ad, while only 51% of respondents gave correct translations (Gerritsen et al., p. 18). The average percentage of correct translations was 43. For four of the five ads studied the younger respondents gave significantly more correct translations than the older respondents.

In a study into the effects of the use of English in both partly and completely English commercials broadcast on Dutch television, Gerritsen et al. (2000) found that respondents displayed a rather negative attitude towards the English used (their average score was 3.4 on a scale where 1 = positive and 5 = negative), and that, while on average 82% claimed to

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understand the English text, only 36% were able to paraphrase the meaning of the English words and phrases correctly. Young respondents (aged between 15 and 18) had a significantly more positive attitude and were better at paraphrasing the meaning of English words and phrases than older respondents (aged between 50 and 57). Respondents with a higher level of secondary education were better at paraphrasing than respondents with a lower level of secondary education. The effect of level of education on attitude towards English was not clear cut. For four commercials out of the six tested, the differences found were not significant; for one commercial, respondents with a low level of secondary education had a more positive attitude than those with a high level of secondary education, and for another it was the other way around.

Dasselaar et al. (2005) studied the effects that the use of English in a partly English and all-English homepage of promotional websites had on 15-year-old pupils at the two highest levels of secondary education (*havo* and *vwo*), compared to the effects of all-Dutch versions of the same homepages. They found that the use of English instead of Dutch did not result in significant differences in evaluations of the attractiveness of the text on the website, attitudes towards the website, attitudes towards the product that was promoted, and intentions to use the product. The use of English was considered to make the text on the websites more difficult, and, in the case of the partly English website, less natural. While for the all-English homepage there were no significant differences in respondents' estimation of the difficulty of individual English words and phrases as opposed to Dutch equivalents, individual English words and phrases from the partly English homepage were considered more difficult than their Dutch equivalents. For both homepages, respondents gave fewer correct paraphrases of the meaning of the English words and phrases than of the equivalent Dutch words and phrases.

Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al. (2007) compared the effect on highly educated young women of the use of English and Dutch in print-medium product advertisements. For three out of the four ads tested, there were no significant differences in attitudes towards the language used in the ads between ads containing English and all-Dutch equivalents. In one case, the respondents' attitude was significantly more positive for the all-Dutch ad than for the ad containing English. As for attitude towards the

product, the use of English or Dutch did not result in differences in the extent to which the respondents regarded the product as cheap or expensive, and only in the case of one out of four ads did the use of English or Dutch result in differences in their views of the modernity of the product, such that the product in the ad with English was considered more modern. Comprehension was tested by asking the respondents to paraphrase the meaning of a number of individual English words and phrases (not their Dutch equivalents). It was found that 81% of the respondents paraphrased these words and phrases correctly.

Smakman et al. (2009) researched the effects that partly English versus equivalent all-Dutch radio commercials had on Dutch pupils at two levels of secondary school, a lower level (*vmbo*) and a higher level (*vwo*). They found no significant differences in respondents' evaluations of company image and of product image, nor of the intelligibility of the commercials. However, results for attractiveness of the commercials and for purchasing intentions were mixed. For one of the two commercials studied, the partly English version was considered more attractive than its all-Dutch counterpart, and for the other commercial, the all-Dutch version was considered more attractive. Purchasing intentions were higher for the all-Dutch version of one of the commercials than for its partly English equivalent, while for the other commercial there were no significant differences between the versions. Comprehension was tested by asking respondents to transcribe and paraphrase words and phrases from the commercials. No significant differences were found between the number of correct transcriptions and paraphrases of English words and phrases and those of their Dutch counterparts. There was a significant interaction between level of education and response to the commercials for attractiveness of the commercial and for comprehension. The attractiveness of the partly English version of one of the commercials was rated more highly by the *vmbo* pupils than by the *vwo* pupils. The *vwo* pupils had larger numbers of correct transcriptions and paraphrases than the *vmbo* pupils for both the partly English and all-Dutch versions of the two commercials.

Finally, Hornikx et al. (2010) investigated the relationship between Dutch respondents' comprehension of English slogans and their evaluation of these slogans. They also studied how the level of difficulty of the English slogans affected the respondents' preference for ads containing either these

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English slogans or their Dutch equivalents. The study showed that the respondents' attitudes to the English slogans that they found easy were better than to the English slogans that they found difficult. Furthermore, the respondents preferred ads containing English slogans to ads containing equivalent Dutch slogans when they found the English slogans easy to understand. When they found the English slogans difficult to understand, there was no significant difference in preference for ads containing English or Dutch slogans.

To conclude, the picture that emerges about attitudes towards and comprehension of English in product advertising is the following. When measured without reference to attitudes towards Dutch, attitudes towards English were found not to be very positive nor very negative. When the effects of English on attitudes and on behavioural intentions were compared with those of Dutch, they were found to be very similar. In terms of the model of foreign language use in advertising presented in Chapter 1.3, this suggests that the symbolic effects of English in product advertising were similar to those of Dutch. As for comprehension, both estimated and actual comprehension of English were either worse than or similar to estimated and actual comprehension of Dutch. Estimated ability to translate English words and phrases was found to be higher than actual ability. Comprehension of the English used in ads was shown to be positively related to attitudes towards the English used and towards the ads in which it occurred. In addition, the studies revealed differences between age groups and groups with different educational backgrounds. Younger respondents had a more positive attitude toward English and were better at paraphrasing the meaning of English words and phrases than were older respondents. The effect of level of education on attitude towards English was not clear cut, but respondents with a higher level of secondary education were better at paraphrasing English than respondents with a lower level of secondary education.

If we compare these findings with those of general studies of Dutch people's attitudes towards and comprehension of English reported earlier in this section, it is clear that the findings for attitudes do not match, while those for comprehension do. The attitudes to English in product advertising are not as positive as the general attitudes about English as a language of communication expressed in surveys (Bonnet, 2004, p. 90; De Bot et al., 2007,

pp. 63-64; De Bot & Weltens, 1997; European Commission, 2006, p. 32), but neither are they as negative as the views expressed by writers who oppose and ridicule its use (see Ridder, 1995, p. 48; Tiggeler & Doeve, n.d.; Van der Sijs, 1996, p. 306). The finding that the level of education did not have a clear-cut effect on attitude towards English in advertising does not match the finding of an experiment regarding the use of English in Dutch texts outside an advertising context, which showed that young respondents with a low education were impressed by English, while young highly-educated respondents were not (Withagen & Boves, 1991). The finding that younger people had a more positive attitude towards English in advertising than older people appears to be in contrast with Withagen and Boves's finding that their older respondents (aged over 50) regarded someone who uses many English words as friendly and reliable, although the study does not indicate to what extent the older respondents' attitudes differed from those of the younger respondents (aged between 20 and 30).

As far as comprehension is concerned, just like studies of English in product advertising, general comprehension tests indicate that Dutch people have a high estimation of their understanding of English (Bonnet, 2004, p. 77; De Bot et al., 2007, pp. 66-67; De Bot & Weltens, 1997; European Commission, 2006, Annex, table for question D48r.2; Van Onna & Jansen, 2006c), which is higher than their actual understanding (Van Onna & Jansen, 2006c). Just as studies of English in advertising have shown that respondents with a higher level of secondary education gave better paraphrases of the meaning of English words and phrases than did respondents with a lower level of secondary education, it was found that in general pupils at higher types of secondary education have better English language skills than pupils at lower types (Bonnet, 2004, p. 139; cf. Edelenbos & De Jong, 2004, p. 24).

2.3 Implications of the position of English in Dutch society for the use and effects of English in job advertisements

The information presented about the position of English in Dutch society has a number of implications for the use of English in job advertisements and its possible effects. It provides a context for the use of English in job ads in the

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Netherlands by indicating how the use of, comprehension of and attitudes to English in Dutch society may apply to its use and effects in job ads.

Given that English is used in many domains of Dutch society (Sections 2.2.2 and 2.2.3), it is not unexpected to find English in job ads too. For one thing, the organisations that place job advertisements operate in domains where English is used, and this may be reflected in the language they use in their job ads (cf. Watts, 2002, p. 118). Advertising is also mentioned as a domain in itself in which English is used regularly. Without providing specific comparative figures, Bonnet (2004, p. 47) says that advertising in the Netherlands is a domain which “seems to be at the forefront of the spread of English”. Several corpus analyses have certainly shown that the use of English in product advertising in the Dutch media is widespread (Section 2.2.3), but it has not been empirically investigated whether this is also true for job advertising.

It has been found that higher-level secondary school pupils had a higher level of English language proficiency than lower-level secondary school pupils and that respondents with a higher level of education were better at comprehending English in product advertising than those with a lower level education (Section 2.2.5). A possible, as yet untested, implication of this difference between levels of command of English for people with different educational backgrounds is that organisations placing job advertisements may attempt to prevent comprehension problems by using less English in ads aimed at candidates with a lower level of education.

The above mentioned possible implications for the use of English in job ads are dealt with in Chapter 6, which presents corpus analyses of English in job advertisements. Among other questions, it will investigate how frequently English is used in job ads, whether the domain in which organisations operate affects the extent to which English is used in the job ads they place, and whether the extent to which English is used depends on the level of education required for the job that is advertised.

The data about Dutch people’s relatively high receptive English language skills (Section 2.2.5) suggest that understanding the English used in job ads may not be a problem. On the other hand, the finding that Dutch people usually do not reach the highest proficiency levels distinguished within CEFR and overestimate their proficiency (also for reading) suggests that English in job ads may cause comprehension problems after all. This is

also suggested by the results of experiments which showed that respondents made mistakes in paraphrasing the meaning of English words and phrases in product advertisements, more so than in paraphrasing equivalent Dutch words and phrases. The effect that the use of English instead of Dutch has on the comprehension of job ads on the part of their receivers will be investigated in Chapter 7, which presents experiments testing the effect of English.

As for attitudes to English in job ads, what can be deduced from what is known about general attitudes to English and attitudes to English in product advertising (Section 2.2.5) is ambivalent. The fact that Dutch people's attitude to English is generally favourable suggests that their attitude to English in job ads may also be favourable. At the same time, individual writers and organisations have expressed negative attitudes about English, which suggests that the use of English in job ads may not always be evaluated positively. Attitudes to English in job ads may also be neutral, given that attitudes towards English in product advertisements have been shown to be neither very negative nor very positive, and that attitudes expressed about product ads containing English were not very different from attitudes expressed about equivalent all-Dutch product ads. Moreover, as Smit (1996, p. 35) observes, "the general attitude an individual holds towards a language is not a uniform entity but consists of, or depends on, various other attitudes towards the use of this language in various domains". This implies that attitudes to the use of English in the specific domain of job advertisements may not be identical to general attitudes towards English in the Netherlands, nor to attitudes towards English in product advertisements. The effect of the use of English instead of Dutch in job ads on their receivers' attitudes to the ad, the organisation and the position will be investigated through experimental research in Chapter 7.

Chapter 3 – Published views on English in job advertising in the Netherlands and other European EFL countries

In a wide variety of publications and media treatments, views about the use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands and other European EFL countries are expressed, which indicate how widespread it is according to the authors, what they think the reasons behind it are, and what their attitudes are towards it. As was pointed out in Chapter 1.5, a description of these published views can be classified as analysis of “societal treatment” of language varieties (Garrett, 2005, p. 1251; Ryan, Giles, & Hewstone, 1988, pp. 1068-1069; Ryan et al., 1982, p. 7), an approach which Garrett calls “an important source of insights into the relative status and stereotypical associations” of such varieties (2005, p. 1251). Although these views may not be representative of the opinions of the population at large, since they are only published by those who have the means and the inclination to make their views public (cf. Spitzmüller, 2007, p. 263), they reveal existing opinions among at least certain members of society. The current chapter describes such published views, and attempts to fit them into the model of English in job advertising presented in Figure 1.4 in Chapter 1.3.6.

The strength of the model is that it has a strong basis in both theoretical literature and empirical research relating to English in product advertising. Its weakness is that it is not informed by concrete observations specifically made about English in job advertisements. These are exactly what is provided by the published views on English in job ads in the Netherlands and other European EFL countries, despite the fact that, in contrast to the model and the literature on which it is based, they do not provide a systematic account of the role of English, but express the writers’ personal impressions about certain aspects that caught their attention. By linking the concrete observations made in published views about English in job ads to the abstract notions of the model, this chapter investigates the workability of the model, and thereby aims to determine whether a model which was largely based on literature about English in product advertising can be applied to English in job advertising. Along with the more abstract notions from the model, these published views will be used in Chapter 4 as

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more specific pointers for the research questions guiding the empirical studies in this dissertation.

Inspired by Spitzmüller's (2005) research into attitudes towards Anglicisms in Germany, this chapter investigates views on English in job advertisements expressed in public and scholarly discourse. Following Spitzmüller's criteria (2005, p. 49), public discourse was defined as publications in media aimed at the general public, and scholarly discourse was defined as publications aimed at a scholarly readership. The discussion of views in scholarly publications was limited to the writers' personal impressions, and did not include their empirical findings. Since the number of publications about English in job ads in the Netherlands is small, there is a strong likelihood that they cover only a limited number of aspects of this phenomenon. It was therefore decided to include views from scholarly publications about English in job ads in other countries in order to shed more light on the role of English in this genre. The countries included were restricted to European EFL countries, on the assumption that the role of English in these countries is likely to be comparable to that in the Netherlands.

The published views were found by using a range of search strategies. Various databases, including Scholar Google and Picarta (which covers books and electronic publications in Dutch university and other libraries), as well as the Internet at large, were searched using combinations of "English" and "job advertisements" as search terms. Furthermore, normative and scholarly publications about the use of English in various countries were consulted to find out if they contained observations about English in job ads. Finally, some publications were not found through any systematic searches but because the researcher stumbled upon them or was alerted to them by others. For an overview of the publications used, see Table 3.1.

Published views on English in job advertising

Table 3.1. Publications expressing views on English in job ads used in this chapter

Publication	Type of publication	Country to which publication relates
<i>Public discourse</i>		
Ampzing Genootschap (2004, n.d.)	humorous language booklet, website	The Netherlands
De Koning (1989)	article in non-specialist language magazine	The Netherlands
Eiffel (2006)	radio commercial	The Netherlands
Jansen (2006)	article in weekly job ad edition of national daily newspaper	The Netherlands
Kuiper (2007)	article in national weekly magazine	The Netherlands
Müller-Thurau (1999, as cited in Seitz, 2008)	article in national Sunday newspaper	Germany
Nortier (2009)	non-specialist language book	The Netherlands
Peereboom (1991)	article in non-specialist language magazine	The Netherlands
Renkema et al. (2001)	article in non-specialist language magazine	The Netherlands
Schrauwers (1997)	article in non-specialist language magazine	The Netherlands
Schreiner (1990)	dictionary of job titles used in the Netherlands	The Netherlands
Tiggeler and Doeve (n.d. [2005])	humorous language booklet	The Netherlands
Timmerman (1992)	practitioner guide for job ads	The Netherlands
<i>Scholarly discourse</i>		
Gerritsen (2001)	article in edited book	The Netherlands
Gerritsen (2002)	article in edited book	The Netherlands
Heynderickx and Dieltjens (2002)	article in edited book	Belgium
Hilgendorf (1996)	article in scholarly journal	Germany
Hilgendorf and Martin (2001)	article in edited book	Germany
Larson (1990)	article in scholarly journal	Sweden
Moore and Varantola (2005)	article in edited book	Finland
Seitz (2008)	monograph	Germany
Taavitsainen and Pahta (2003)	article in scholarly journal	Finland
Watts (2002)	article in edited book	Switzerland

Where possible, the reasons and attitudes expressed in published views about English in job advertisements were compared with literature relating to English in product advertising in EFL countries in Europe and

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elsewhere. This was done because it was deemed useful to make explicit links between the views about English in job ads and the theories and empirical research about English in product advertising on which the model was based.

In keeping with the model in Figure 1.4 presented in Chapter 1.3.6, the reasons and attitudes expressed were subdivided into symbolic and non-symbolic reasons and attitudes. In accordance with the definitions given in Chapter 1.3.6, symbolic reasons and attitudes were defined as reasons for and attitudes towards language use that were to do with suggesting qualities or characteristics that were not objectively observable. Non-symbolic reasons and attitudes were defined as reasons for and attitudes towards language use which referred to aspects that would be objectively observable in the advertisement or the real world outside the advertisement. Also, an attempt was made to link the views to entities from the model, i.e., sender, message, context, and receiver (with respect to the latter, specifically, the receivers' comprehension of the job ad message, their attitudes towards the organisation, towards the position and towards the job ad message, their behavioural intention and their actual behaviour).

The remainder of this chapter is organised as follows. It begins by presenting published views about the frequency with which English is used in job advertisements in the Netherlands (Section 3.1). It then presents published views expressing *symbolic* reasons for and attitudes towards the use of English in job advertisements (Section 3.2). Next, it presents published views expressing *non-symbolic* reasons and attitudes (Section 3.3). It ends with a discussion about the extent to which the views found may be generalised (Section 3.4).

3.1 The frequency with which English is used in job advertisements in the Netherlands

A number of authors remark that the use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands is widespread. In the introduction to his dictionary of job titles encountered in a Dutch context, e.g. in job ads published in daily newspapers and in weeklies, Schreiner (1990, p. 7) points out that such job titles are "subject to strong Anglo-American influences" [my translation].

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Among the examples he discusses are the use of “Sales Manager” or “Product Manager instead of “verkoopchef”, and the use of “Personnel Manager” or “Human Resource Manager” instead of “personeelschef”. Renkema et al. (2001, p. 257) observe that English terms occur frequently in Dutch job advertisements, illustrating their observation with examples of English job titles that are found alongside Dutch equivalents, “engineer” / “ingenieur” and “human resource manager” / “personeelsfunctionaris”. When the Dutch comedian Dolf Jansen describes his experiences leafing through the pages of the *de Volkskrant* job ad magazine, he comments on the prevalence of English in the job ads:

Het zal u ook zijn opgevallen, de afgelopen maanden, dat ruim tweederde van dit magazine bestaat uit advertenties, vacatures, aanprijzingen en head-gehunt [...] Dus heb ik me eens volstrekt willekeurig door vele van die pagina's, door vele van die advertenties heen gewerkt. Om uit te vinden of ik het zou kunnen, solliciteren, om uit te vinden *if I've got what it takes* voor de een of andere prachtbaan. En dat gebruik van de Engelse taal is inderdaad geen toeval. Het sterft in de gemiddelde advertentie van de *application executives*, de managers en controllers, de jobs ook. (Jansen, 2006, p. 7)

[It will have struck you, too, in the past few months, that well over two thirds of this magazine consists of advertisements, vacancies, recommendations and head-hunting. [...] So completely at random I have worked my way through many of these pages, through many of these ads. To find out whether I could do it, applying for a job, to find out *if I've got what it takes* for some super job. And this use of the English language is indeed no coincidence. The average ad is riddled with *application executives*, managers and controllers, and jobs too.]

As one of the examples illustrating the advance of English in the Netherlands, Nortier (2009, p. 24) notes that “it is now very common for job

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advertisements to ask for ‘sales managers’, ‘consultants’ and ‘controllers’” [my translation].

In terms of the model of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands set out in Figure 1.4 (Chapter 1.3.6), these observations relate to the frequency with which English is used in the job ad *message*. In addition, Schreiner’s reference to “strong Anglo-American influences” (1990, p. 7) points to the role of *context* in this phenomenon: the influence of Great Britain and the United States on job titles used in the Netherlands.

3.2 Symbolic reasons for and attitudes towards English in job advertisements in the Netherlands and other European EFL countries

This section will describe a number of published views expressing symbolic reasons for and attitudes towards English in job advertisements. Nine topics will be discussed: image and prestige as a reason for the use of English in job ads (3.2.1); English in Dutch job ads seen as puffed up and bombastic (3.2.2); the use of English for global image building (3.2.3); the use of English to suggest modernity (3.2.4); English sounds better (3.2.5); the use of English to create a certain atmosphere (3.2.6); the use of English to suggest the importance of English language skills for successful applicants (3.2.7); the use of all-English job ads to indicate that English is the organisation’s corporate language (3.2.8); the use of English as a threat to the Dutch language (3.2.9).

3.2.1 Image and prestige as a reason for the use of English in job ads

One of the effects the use of English is claimed to have in job advertisements in the Netherlands and other European EFL countries is that it enhances the image of a job and organisation and more specifically adds prestige. Larson (1990) says that one reason for the use of “an English-sounding job title” instead of a Swedish one in a Swedish job ad is that it can make a job sound “more appealing and challenging” (p. 368). Similarly, in her discussion of reasons for the use of English job titles in German job ads, Seitz (2008, p. 42)

remarks that “English job titles also function as euphemisms for low-prestige jobs”, giving the holder of the job “a feeling of more importance and appreciation”. Likewise, one of the explanations Watts (2002) gives for the use of the Anglicism “Teamcoach” as a job title in a Swiss job advertisement is that it “makes the job sound more attractive” (p. 118). Larson does not only mention the image-enhancing effect of English in job ads in relation to job titles. He also observes that companies prefer to use English terms in descriptions of work areas because of the image they want to project, quoting the example of a small Swedish financial organisation using the English word *finance* instead of the Swedish word *finans* (p. 367). In their discussion of fashionable English used by Dutch people, Tiggeler and Doeve (n.d. [2005]) describe the use of English job titles in job ads such as “sales engineer” and “sales agent” instead of their Dutch equivalent (“verkoper”) as “English-to-impress” (“imponereengels”), and suggest that the status of someone with such an English title is higher than of someone with the corresponding Dutch title (p. 67). Reviewing Schreiner’s (1990) dictionary of job titles used in the Netherlands, taken from job ads, among other sources, Peereboom (1991) also comments that people probably derive status from having an English instead of the equivalent Dutch job title.

These observations are in line with claims about the prestige-enhancing effect of English in product advertising in EFL countries (e.g. Friedrich, 2002, p. 23; Griffin, 1997, p. 38; Haarmann, 1989, p. 234). The use of English is said to enhance the image of the product or service advertised (Takashi, 1990, p. 329), a view which is confirmed by interviews with advertising agencies in countries as far apart as the Netherlands (Gerritsen et al., 2000, p. 20) and Ecuador (Alm, 2003, p. 151). Higher prestige was also one of the reasons for the use of English words in German product ads found in a survey among German organisations (König, 1974, as cited in Viereck, 1980, p. 252). These claims link up with prestige being identified as one the reasons for the use of loanwords generally, including borrowings from English (e.g. Hock, 1986, pp. 409-411).

In terms of the model presented in Figure 1.4 (Chapter 1.3.6), the image- and prestige-enhancing effect of English in job ads discussed in the literature is a symbolic effect which is mainly related to the *job* that is advertised, although Larson (1990) also relates it to the *organisation* that placed the ad. This effect may also be related to the *senders* of the job ad

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message, in that enhancing image and prestige may be their motivation for using English. It may also be related to the *receivers* of the job ad message, in that they may perceive a job or an organisation as being more prestigious as a result of the use of English in the job ad. This may in turn positively affect their *behavioural intention* and *actual behaviour*, i.e. their application intentions and actual application for the job advertised.

3.2.2 English in Dutch job ads seen as puffed up and bombastic

The attitudes expressed about English in Dutch job advertisements are not all as positive as the comments about its prestige-enhancing effects cited above. In fact, the prestige-enhancing effect is also evaluated negatively, when it is stressed that English is used to present something as better than it actually is. To start with the Dutch authors referred to in Section 3.2.1, this negative view is implied in Tiggeler and Doeve's use of the term "English-to-impress" to refer to English job titles (n.d., p. 67). The same implication follows from their term "puff-up English" ("opblaasengels") to refer to the word "targets" instead of its Dutch equivalent "doelstellingen", in Dutch job ads among other texts (p. 77). At the same time as pointing out that people may derive status from having an English job title, Peereboom (1991, p. 7) similarly calls this use of English job titles "puffed up" ("opgeblazen"). In the chapter on language use and spelling of his *Handboek voor de personeeladvertentie* [Manual for job advertisements], Timmerman (1992) discusses what he calls the "English disease" ("Engelse ziekte"), which he classifies as a form of bombast, the unnecessary use of "difficult and expensive words" (pp. 165-166). He quotes the following example: "Een attitude en positionering vanuit de juiste *drive* en *behaviour* voor een *counselling*, die *clear* en *to the point* is" (italics added, FvM) [an attitude and positioning springing from the right drive and behaviour for a counselling which is clear and to the point] (p. 166). Timmerman condemns bombast as "diseased language use" (p. 165). Finally, in two job advertisements broadcast on Dutch radio in October and November 2006 to recruit employees in the areas of finance and law, the Dutch company Eiffel (2006) ironically presents an excessive number of English words and phrases, and contrasts this with qualities such as professionalism, talent, content and

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substance. The term “ironically” is used as defined by Wilson and Sperber (1992, p. 60; 2002, p. 272), in the sense that the company in its broadcasts echoes words and phrases from which it later disassociates itself, expressing a clearly negative attitude about them. One of these broadcasts ran as follows:

Ben jij die proactieve *sparring partner* met een *getting-things-done* mentaliteit? Die *self-starter* met gevoel voor pragmatische *down-selling*? Ben jij die *team player* die ook op *stand-alone* basis excelleert?

Dan moet je ons toch eens komen uitleggen wat dat precies betekent.

Ben je echter een financieel *professional* met talent, en heb je meer met een inhoudelijk verhaal, kijk dan op Eiffel.nl.

Eiffel. *Grip* op de zaak⁸

[Are you this proactive sparring partner with a getting-things-done mentality? This self-starter with a feeling for pragmatic down-selling? Are you this team player who also excels on a stand-alone basis?

Then will you please come and tell us what that means exactly

⁸ The commercial is reproduced by kind permission of Kristel van de Peppel of Eiffel. Words of English origin that appear in the Dutch text have been italicised. Note that while the large number of words of English origin at the beginning of the commercials are clearly intended to be interpreted as “puffed-up” “English-to-impress”, to borrow the qualifications from Peereboom (1991, p. 7) and Tiggeler and Doeve (n.d., p. 67), some of the words used in the part at the end of the commercials which expresses the values the organisation stands for (“professional” and “grip”) are also of English origin, which shows that not all such words are felt to be exaggerated.

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However, if you're a financial professional with talent, and if you prefer content and substance, go to Eiffel.nl.

Eiffel. Grip on things.]

These negative evaluations of the use of English in job ads are symbolic reactions expressed in relation to the *job* advertised, and also to the text of the *advertising message*. If *senders* of job ad messages have this negative attitude to the use of English, they may choose to avoid it in their job ads. If *receivers* of job ad messages have a negative attitude to the English words and expressions used, this may result in a negative attitude towards the job ad *message* and the *job* advertised. If the message is considered bombastic, the *organisation* behind the message may also be seen as bombastic. Finally, negative attitudes to the organisation, the job ad message and the position advertised may negatively affect *behavioural intentions* and *behaviour*, i.e. a decision not to apply for the job.

3.2.3 The use of English for global image building

Moore and Varantola (2005, p. 138) found that the Finnish newspaper *Helsingin Sanomat* contains all-English job ads as well as job ads with a mix of English and Finnish. They observe that English is used for "global image building." Discussing German job ads, Müller-Thurau (1999, as cited in Seitz, 2008, p. 14) remarks that the use of English words indicates that the organisation advertising the vacancy is international ("weist auf ein internationales Unternehmen hin"). Similarly, without specifically referring to job advertising, Tiggeler and Doeve (n.d., pp. 21-22) remark that the use of the English job title "CEO" may add international lustre ("internationale sjeu") to a Dutch organisation. This links up with remarks in literature about the use of English in product ads which claim that it creates an international and cosmopolitan image (Alm, 2003, pp. 145, 151-152; Baker & Van Gelder, 1997, p. 36; Bhatia, 1992, p. 213; Fink et al., 1995, pp. 176, 231; Gerritsen, et al., 2000, p. 20; Hsu, 2008, pp. 158-169; Kelly-Holmes, 2000, p. 76; Kelly-Holmes, 2005, pp. 71, 79; König, 1974, as cited in Viereck, 1980, p. 252; Martin, 2006, p. 164; Piller, 2003, p. 175; Takashi, 1990, p. 330).

The use of English to suggest an international image is a symbolic effect expressed in relation to the *organisation*. This may be a reason for *senders* of job ad messages to use English in their job ads. *Receivers* of job ad messages may similarly interpret the use of English as a signal of the international nature of the organisation, and if this appeals to them, this may positively affect their *behavioural (application) intentions*, and ultimately their *actual application behaviour*.

3.2.4 The use of English to create a modern image

Seitz (2008, p. 42) remarks that English job titles in German job advertisements “transfer a more modern and innovative image”. This is in line with the claim that English is used in product advertising to create an impression of modernity (Alm, 2003, pp. 145.; Bhatia, 1992, p. 213; Fink et al., 1995, pp. 176, 214, 231; Gerritsen, et al., 2000, p. 20; Kelly-Holmes, 2000, p. 76; Kelly-Holmes, 2005, pp. 71; König, 1974, as cited in Viereck, 1980, p. 252; Martin, 2006, p. 164; Piller, 2003, p. 175; Takashi, 1990, p. 330-332; Wetzler, 2006, p. 310).

The use of English to project a modern image is a symbolic effect expressed in relation to the *job* advertised, but it may also be used to indicate that the *organisation* advertising the vacancy is modern. Creating a modern image may be a reason for *senders* of job ad messages to use English in their job ads. In turn, *receivers* of job ad messages may interpret the use of English as a signal of the modern nature of the job and the organisation, and if they find this attractive, it may favourably affect their *behavioural (application) intentions*, and in the end their *actual application behaviour*.

3.2.5 English sounds better

In her discussion of English job titles in German job advertisements, Seitz (2008, p. 11) suggests that “companies prefer using English job titles because they sound better and more interesting”. The notion that English words are used because they sound better than equivalents in the local language is also found in the literature on product ads (Fink et al., 1995, pp. 214, 231; Masavisut et al., 1986, p. 203; Wetzler, 2006, p. 310).

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The idea that English sounds better than equivalents in the local language is a symbolic reason for *senders* of job ad messages to use English, which relates to the text of the *message* and what it refers to, in this case the *job* advertised. If *receivers* also feel that English sounds better, this may affect their *attitude to the message* and to what the message covers, i.e. their *attitude to the job* offered. If, as a result, their attitude to the job is favourable, this may lead to *application intentions* and to *actual application behaviour*.

3.2.6 The use of English to create a certain atmosphere, which may influence application decisions

In connection with Dutch and French job ads in Belgium, Heynderickx and Dieltjens (2002, p. 101) remark that the use of English words is one of the aspects of language use that may influence motivation to apply because it creates a certain atmosphere. They do not, however, specify what kind of atmosphere English words create, nor what effect this atmosphere may have on application intentions. Since their observation is not very specific, it is difficult to link it to particular comments about the effect of English by other authors, but it may be connected to general symbolic associations with English as a world language, such as modernity and progress (Kelly-Holmes, 2000, p. 76; see Chapter 1.3.2), and to the prestige-enhancing effect of the use of English or its negative evaluations, such as puffed-up and bombastic, which were discussed in Section 3.2.2.

Heynderickx and Dieltjens's (2002) remark identifies a symbolic effect of the use of English on the *receivers* of job ad messages, more specifically on their *behavioural intentions*, i.e. their application intentions. If the atmosphere created by English indeed affects the receivers' application intentions, it may ultimately affect their *actual application behaviour*, because the atmosphere may or may not appeal to them. If *senders* of job advertising messages feel they can create a certain atmosphere by using English, and if they find it desirable to create this atmosphere, this may be a symbolic reason for them to use English in their job ads.

3.2.7 The use of all-English ads to suggest the importance of English language skills for successful applicants

On the basis of all-English job ads published in German and Swiss newspapers, Hilgendorf (1996, p. 11), Hilgendorf and Martin (2001, pp. 223-225) and Watts (2002, p. 117) observe that such ads suggest the importance of English language skills for successful applicants. Even if the advertisement includes no explicit references to language requirements, “the applicants [...] are expected to infer, and obviously will infer, that the major language with which they will be expected to communicate is English” (Watts, p. 117). This reason for using English would seem to be unique to job advertising. No similar comments have been encountered in relation to product advertising.

This observation identifies a symbolic effect of the use of English on their *receivers*. If receivers indeed take an all-English job ad or English words in a job ad to signal the importance of successful applicants’ fluency in English, this may affect their *behavioural intentions*. They may decide not to apply for the job if they think their command of English is not good enough, and therefore this signal may influence their *actual application behaviour*. *Senders* of job ad messages may deliberately choose to exploit this signal, by placing all-English ads or using English words to filter out unsuitable applicants.

3.2.8 The use of all-English job ads to indicate that English is the organisation’s corporate language

Watts (2002, p. 117) asks whether by publishing an all-English job advertisement in a Swiss newspaper an organisation “indicate[s] that the corporate language of this particular firm is English”.

In terms of the model, signalling that English is the organisation’s corporate language is a symbolic reason for a *sender* of an advertising message to place an all-English job ad. It suggests a characteristic of the *organisation*. This may affect the *receivers* of the job ad message. If they indeed interpret an all-English job ad as a signal that English is the organisation’s corporate language, this may affect their *attitude towards the organisation*, which in turn may influence their *behavioural intentions*. They

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may decide not to apply for the job if the idea of English as a corporate language – implying frequent communication in English – does not appeal to them. Conversely, they may decide to apply if this idea does appeal to them. If subsequently they act on their application decisions, this signal may ultimately influence their *actual application behaviour*.

3.2.9 The use of English seen as a threat to the Dutch language

The use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands is also seen as a threat to the Dutch language. Schrauwers (1997, p. 191) compares Dutch to a sandcastle which is caving in because of the rising waters from Anglo-Saxon countries, and cites a number of examples, including the completely English job ad for a marine biogeochemist placed in the Dutch national paper *de Volkskrant* by the Dutch Institute for Study of the Sea (Nederlands Instituut voor Onderzoek der Zee).

This remark may be seen as an indication of the symbolic effect of a job ad *message* which is completely in English. Such a text is seen as a threat to the Dutch language, presumably because English is used for communication by a Dutch organisation in a Dutch medium. This remark may also be related to *context* in the model presented in Figure 1.4 (Chapter 1.3.6), since it is a comment about a development in Dutch society at large.

3.3 Non-symbolic reasons for and attitudes towards English in job advertisements in the Netherlands and other European EFL countries

This section will describe a number of published views expressing non-symbolic reasons for and attitudes towards English in job advertisements. Seven topics will be discussed: the comprehensibility of English (3.3.1); the use of English in job titles to avoid gender bias (3.3.2); the use of English to create international consistency (3.3.3); the use of English to attract attention (3.3.4); the use of English to fill lexical gaps (3.3.5); the degree of assimilation of English terms in job ads into the receivers' first language (3.3.6); and the use of English in the organisation's sector (3.3.7).

3.3.1 The comprehensibility of English in job ads

An issue raised in the media and in publications about the use of English in Dutch job advertisements is its comprehensibility. In the Eiffel radio commercial quoted above, for instance, the use of English words and phrases in questions listing the successful candidate's qualifications (e.g. "Ben jij die proactieve sparring partner met een getting-things-done mentaliteit? [Are you this proactive sparring partner with a getting-things-done mentality?]) is followed by the remark "Then will you please come and tell us what that means exactly". This remark ironically indicates that the excessive use of English management speak confuses the message. When the Dutch comedian Dolf Jansen describes his experiences reading the job ad magazine of the Dutch national paper *de Volkskrant* (see Section 3.1), he indicates that, while the Dutch job titles in the job advertisements are clear to him, he often does not know what jobs with English titles involve:

Al binnen twee pagina's realiseer ik me dat ik bij een behoorlijk deel van de functies nauwelijks een idee heb wat er gevraagd wordt. Ik bedoel, als er in dikke letters staat ALGEMEEN DIRECTEUR heb ik een idee. Dat is – wordt – de baas. Die 'is eindverantwoordelijk, heeft de algemene leiding, rapporteert en wordt ondersteund...'. *Nice work if you can get it*. En dat de ideale Manager Communicatie een 'strategische visie op communicatie' heeft en daarnaast 'stressbestendig en dienstverlenend' is kan ik ook nog een behoorlijk eind inkomen. Maar wat wordt er precies verwacht van de HR Policy & Support Manager, de teamleider Planning & Control? (Jansen, 2006, p. 7)

[Within the space of only two pages, I realise that for a considerable portion of the positions I have hardly a clue what is required. I mean, when it says in fat letters ALGEMEEN DIRECTEUR [General Manager], I have an idea. That is – will be – the boss. He/She "has final responsibility, has overall control, reports and is supported ...". *Nice work if you can get it*. And I can quite understand

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that the ideal *Manager Communicatie* [Communications Manager] has “a strategic view of communication” and is also “stress resistant and service-minded”. But what exactly is expected of the *HR Policy & Support Manager*, the *teamleider* [team leader] *Planning & Control?*]

Similar doubts about the comprehensibility of English terms used in Dutch job advertisements are expressed in Kuiper (2007). She describes the advice given by the owner of a career advice bureau regarding the importance of preparation in job applications, which includes carefully reading and investigating the job ad by making an analysis of the text to determine what the writer actually means. Kuiper writes that it may not be easy to do this, one of the reasons being that “[h]et proza van veel advertenties is doorspekt met Engelse termen of anglicismen” [the prose of many advertisements is interlarded with English terms or Anglicisms]. As examples she cites “businessbouwer” [business builder] and “hands-on-mentaliteit” [hands-on mentality].

Not all authors take an equally dim view of the comprehensibility and clarity of English terms in Dutch job ads. While condemning the unnecessary use of English words as bombast (see Section 3.2.2), Timmerman (1992, p. 165) points out that this is to be distinguished from the use of technical terms in a particular field which are familiar to the target group addressed in job advertisements. As examples of such technical terms, he quotes from job ads relating to ICT, which contain English computer terms (“mainframe”, “terminals”, “host”, “IBM(-compatible)”) as well as Dutch ones (“vierde-generatie-talen” [fourth-generation languages]) (p. 165). If such terms are indeed clear to the specialists addressed in the job ad, Timmerman says that recruiters should be content with them and should use them, after having taken expert advice on whether they are suitable (pp. 165-166). It can be concluded that while such terms may not be comprehensible to lay people, they are to the target group of the ad.

The comprehensibility of English in job ads is also discussed in publications relating to Finland, Germany, and Switzerland. Taavitsainen and Pahta (2003, p. 8) report that the Department of Finnish at the University of Helsinki conducted a campaign in which it claims that English job titles in Finnish job ads “blur the job description and unnecessarily

mystify functions in the business world". Seitz (2008, p. 42) remarks that an organisation advertising a vacancy "may lose applicants" when they do not understand straightaway what an English job title in a German job ad means, but she also suggests that "the right job applicant will understand the English job title or the whole advertisement in English" (p. 14), arguing that an organisation may deliberately use English to filter out applicants who do not have a good command of English. Watts (2002, p. 116) observes that in the case of an all-English job ad placed in a Swiss newspaper advertising the position of a "Senior Software engineer" (p. 112), which contains technical terms such as "multiservice access network products" and "distributed applications (CORBA)", Swiss nationals who are familiar with the technical field and therefore understand the technical terms will be "at a loss" when their English is not good enough to understand the remainder of the ad – just as much as native speakers of English who are not familiar with the technical field (p. 116). He concludes that this means that the only "valid applicants" will be people with the right technical background who are either native English speakers or Swiss nationals who have a good enough command of English to understand the ad (p. 116).⁹ Watts also discusses the comprehensibility of English terms used in the company description of a job ad which is otherwise in German, specifically of the terms "Office-Equipment" and "Repair Center" in an ad for a radio and television electrician (pp. 118-119). He argues that applicants are either expected to know what these terms mean, or that it is not necessary for them to know their meaning, since the rest of the job ad is clear enough for them to determine what the company is involved in. Abstracting away from these specific examples, we can take Watts's comments to imply that understanding English terms need not be a problem if the terms are familiar to the target group, or if understanding their exact meaning is not important because the rest of the ad provides enough relevant information, and that either assumption may be made by the organisation placing the ad.

⁹ Watts (2002) does not explicitly consider the possibility that, in addition to the two types of suitable candidates he identifies, the advertisement may also aim at non-native speakers of English other than Swiss nationals who have the right technical qualifications and a good enough knowledge of English to understand the ad.

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Comparison with views about the comprehensibility of English in product advertising

In the literature about product advertising in EFL countries, too, a number of claims have been made about the comprehensibility of the English that is used. Just as in the case of job advertising, the extent to which English is understood is said to depend on the target group. According to Ecuadorian advertising experts interviewed in Alm (2003, p. 151), social groups who have received little education may not understand English. The Dutch advertising agencies interviewed in Gerritsen et al. (2000, p. 20) were quite optimistic about the comprehensibility of English for Dutch consumers, since they believed that everyone in the Netherlands understands English. Similarly, advertising managers working for German department stores did not expect that the use of English expressions would lead to comprehension problems for German consumers, even though they admitted they had not tested this (Fink et al., 1995, p. 214). The latter two sources thus do not seem to express the same worries as were expressed about the comprehensibility of English in job advertising in the Netherlands and other European EFL countries (see Jansen, 2006, Kuiper, 2007, and Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2003, discussed at the beginning of Section 3.3.1). It should, however, be borne in mind that, unlike the writers who made the comments cited for job advertising, these sources were those responsible for the ads, and they would be likely to claim that their use of English was appropriate.

Comparison with self-assessments and tests of Dutch people's general receptive English proficiency

The more negative assessments of the comprehensibility of English in job ads in the Netherlands contrast with the results of studies presented in Section 2.2.5 showing Dutch people's relatively high self-assessment of their English proficiency (Bonnet, 2004, p. 77; De Bot & Weltens, 1997; De Bot et al., 2007, p. 67; European Commission, 2006, p. 13 and Annex, D48f.2; Van Onna & Jansen, 2006c). At the same time, they are not out of step with the findings of tests presented in the same section which reveal that, although the Dutch have relatively high general receptive English language skills, their scores are not perfect (Bonnet, pp. 69-72; Edelenbos & De Jong, 2004, p.

24; Van Onna & Jansen). Measured in terms of the six main proficiency levels distinguished in the CEFR, actual proficiency is in most cases below the two highest main levels, the exceptions being reading and listening at the highest secondary school type, which are at the second highest CEFR level (Edelenbos & De Jong, p. 24; Van Onna & Jansen; see Table 2.1 in Chapter 2.2.5). For two reasons, however, there may not be a direct relationship between general receptive English proficiency and the comprehension of English in job ads. On the one hand, English as used in job ads may not be general vocabulary, but more difficult specialised vocabulary. On the other hand, if the English terms are from fields with which the intended target groups are familiar, they should be easy to understand (cf. Timmerman, 1992, pp. 165-166; Watts, 2002, p. 116).

Views on the comprehensibility of English seen in terms of the model of English in job advertising in the Netherlands

The extent to which English terms and phrases in job ads are considered comprehensible may be a non-symbolic reason for *senders* of job ad messages to use or avoid using them. If they wish to reach a target group of applicants who have a good command of English but not of Dutch, they may decide to place an all-English job ad, because such applicants cannot be reached otherwise. If *receivers* of job ad messages understand the English used in the job ad they will probably understand the job ad as a whole. By contrast, receivers who do not have a very good command of English may not understand or even read a job ad with English in full. Applicants' understanding of the job ad may affect *behavioural (application) intentions* and actual *application behaviour*. If they do not understand the job ad, they are not likely to respond to it, because they do not know what it is about. Conversely, if they do understand the job ad message, they are more likely to respond to it, since they know what it involves. As indicated in the model in Figure 1.4 (Chapter 1.3.6), comprehension of English in job ads may affect the receiver's *attitude to the job ad message*. A more difficult ad may negatively affect attitude towards the ad (cf. Hornikx & Starren, 2006; Hornikx et al., 2010; see Chapter 1.3.4), which in turn may negatively affect *behavioural (application) intentions* and actual *application behaviour*. However, the English jargon that is used may be familiar to the target groups, and may therefore

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not cause comprehension problems, as is suggested by Timmerman (1992) and Watts (2002), and understanding the meaning of a particular English word or phrase may not be very important because the rest of the ad may provide enough relevant information (Watts, 2002), as was discussed at the beginning of Section 3.3.1.

3.3.2 The use of English in job titles in job ads in the Netherlands to avoid gender bias

An argument that has been advanced for the use of English job titles in job ads specifically in a Dutch context is that English job titles are gender neutral (Gerritsen, 2001, p. 108; Gerritsen, 2002, p. 103). Gerritsen quotes a whole series of English gender-neutral job titles that she found in a corpus analysis of job ads from a Dutch newspaper and a Dutch magazine: “*designer, developer, director, employee, floor broker, market maker, marketeer, officer, professional, researcher, technician, telemarketeer, trader*” (2002, p. 103). The reason that English job titles are considered gender neutral is that, with a few exceptions (e.g. *waitress* as opposed to *waiter*), they usually have no special female form, i.e. one which is morphologically or otherwise distinct from a male form (De Caluwe & Van Santen, 2001, pp. 18, 81). Using English job titles in Dutch job advertisements would therefore be a way of avoiding gender bias, and making clear that both men and women could apply for the job that is advertised, in compliance with the 1980 Dutch law concerning “Equal treatment for men women regarding labour” (“*Gelijke behandeling van mannen en vrouwen bij de arbeid*”) (for this law, see Gerritsen, 2001, pp. 102-103; Gerritsen, 2002, p. 98). This argument for the use of English job titles instead of job titles in a local language has not been encountered for other EFL countries.

The need to avoid sexist bias may be a reason for *senders* of job ad messages to use English job titles. This reason may be non-symbolic, in that it refers to the objectively observable absence of linguistic gender markings. It may also be symbolic, in that it suggests a not directly observable quality of the job, i.e. that it is open to both male and female applicants in equal measure. The use of gender-neutral English job titles may also affect the *receivers* of job ad messages. Its implied effect is to show that both men and women can apply for the vacancy. If it indeed has that effect, it would affect

behavioural (application) intentions and actual application behaviour by equally stimulating both groups to apply. Such gender-neutral English job titles may also affect receivers' *attitudes to the organisation*, because they may interpret these titles as a signal that the organisation is equal opportunity employer. If this is an aspect that appeals to them, it may positively affect their *behavioural (application) intentions and actual application behaviour*.

3.3.3 The use of English to create international consistency

In relation to Swedish job advertisements, Larson (1990) – in addition to identifying the prestige factor as a motivation for the use of English – argues that companies working in a field that is internationally oriented may use English in such ads “in order to create a more internationally homogeneous terminology for that field” (p. 367). He quotes the example of a pharmaceutical company using the term “pain control” instead of the Swedish equivalent (“värk Kontroll”). He observes that there may be a similar reason behind the use of English job titles in job ads: “often it can have a practical importance for multinational companies to use the same term for the same type of job” (p. 368). In other words, Larson suggests that multinational organisations use English terms in their job ads in descriptions of work areas and in job titles to create international consistency in the terms used by its divisions in different countries. In line with this, Seitz (2008, p. 13) in her discussion of English job titles in German job ads, remarks “the use of the same job titles in one group all over the world can be helpful to detect immediately hierarchy and standing”. This use of English terms to create international consistency ties in with one of the reasons advertising agencies in an EFL country outside Europe, Ecuador, give for the use of English in product advertising in various countries across the world, including those where English is a foreign language: it may be part of “a globally consistent marketing strategy” (Alm, 2003, p. 150). That is to say, international companies want to use the same English advertisement, commercial, brand name or slogan in different countries. Dutch advertising agencies also say that not translating these into the first language of consumers saves money (Gerritsen et al., 2000, p. 20).

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In terms of the model in Figure 1.4 (Chapter 1.3.6), a desire to create international consistency in terminology used may be a non-symbolic reason for *senders* of job ad messages to use English in their job ads.

3.3.4 The use of English to attract attention

Discussing German job advertisements, Hilgendorf (1996, p. 11) and Hilgendorf and Martin (2001, p. 221) introduce a further reason for the use of English when they observe that English words and phrases may be used in headlines “to attract attention”. Seitz (2008, p. 42) makes the same point specifically about English job titles in German job ads, remarking “the more foreign they sound, the more they function like an eye-catcher”. The ability to attract attention has also been cited as a reason for the use of foreign languages in product advertising (e.g. Domzal, Hunt, & Kernan, 1995, pp. 99-101; Petrof, 1990, p. 4; Piller, 2001, p. 163). As Domzal et al. put it, “[f]oreign words stand out – they represent an incongruity relative to the language used in the rest of the advertisement – and this distinctiveness makes them noticed” (p. 100). Piller explains this effect in terms of information processing: “[a] general advantage of the use of a foreign language is that it impedes automatic processing and thereby arrests the attention of recipients for a longer time span than monolingual native-language advertisements would” (p. 163). According to Alm (2003, p. 150), her interviews with Ecuadorian advertising agencies also indicated that English was used as an “attention-getter”.

If *senders* of job ad messages indeed believe that the use of English is likely to attract the attention of readers of job ads better than Dutch would, this would be a non-symbolic reason for them to use English. If the use of English in a job ad indeed attracts readers’ attention, it makes sure the job ad gets read sooner, which, in turn, may increase the chance that it leads to an application. This is in line with what De Jong (1987) and Barber (1998) remark about the importance of job ads attracting attention. De Jong (1987, p. 45) argues that a job ad which attracts readers’ attention before other ads will more quickly be selected to be read, and may therefore lead to an application sooner. Barber (1998, p. 38) also stresses the importance of a job ad’s ability to attract attention as an essential preliminary step in the process that leads to job applications: “Effective recruitment material must first

attract the attention of potential applicants, and then persuade them to act (i.e., to apply)". If English indeed has this effect, it means that people who only glance at job ads become readers, i.e. receivers of job ad message. This effect is not included in the receiver side of the model in Figure 1.4 (Chapter 1.3.6), because it occurs at a stage before the message is actually received.

3.3.5 The use of English to fill lexical gaps

There are indications that English words and phrases are used in job advertisements in EFL countries to refer to concepts or items for which there is no word or phrase in the first language of the country where the ads appear. Although this reason is not mentioned explicitly in connection with job ads, it is mentioned in connection with the general use of English job titles instead of Dutch ones. As De Koning reports (1989, p. 218), it is claimed that English titles are used because there are no Dutch equivalents. De Koning, in fact, refines this argument. He points out that the absence of Dutch equivalents does not mean that it is *impossible* to translate English job titles into Dutch, but that such Dutch translations do not exactly express what the position involves. As an example, he observes that a *manager* is not exactly the same as a *bedrijfsleider*. The argument that English words are used to fill a lexical gap is mentioned regularly in relation to product advertising in EFL countries, not just by scholars (e.g. Masavisut et al., 1986, p. 204; Takashi, 1990, pp. 330-331) but also by advertising agencies (Alm, 2003, p. 150; Clyne, 1973, p. 165; Gerritsen et al., 2000, p. 20). The need to refer to new concepts or items originating from another culture is also cited as one of the *general* motivations for the use of loanwords – the other being prestige (Hock, 1986, pp. 408-409; Wetzler, 2006, pp. 27-28).

In terms of the model in Figure 1.4 (Chapter 1.3.6), the use of English words to fill lexical gaps in Dutch may be a non-symbolic reason for *senders* of job ad messages to use English in their job ads.

3.3.6 The degree of assimilation of English terms in job ads into the receivers' first language

Several authors have commented on the degree to which English terms as used in job ads are assimilated into the first language of the country where the ads appear. Larson points out that some of the English words used in Swedish job ads (e.g. "layout" and "support specialist") may no longer be considered English, but would be regarded "as fully assimilated by most people" (1990, p. 378). However, other authors focus on how strange and out of place the use of English words and phrases is. Commenting on the use of English in Finnish job ads, Moore and Varantola (2005, p. 138) write that "those who are linguistically aware can sometimes feel alienated and marginalised by this trend, finding the mixing to be strange". In line with this, Taavitsainen and Pahta (2003, p. 8) use the phrase "odd form of business jargon" to describe the use of English in job titles in otherwise Finnish jobs ads in Finland as well as in otherwise German job ads in Switzerland. Such comments are not new. Peereboom (1991, p. 7) calls the use of English job titles in Dutch organisations "odd" ("raar").

The idea that English in Dutch job ads is out of place is also suggested in a cartoon published in one of the books and on the website of the Ampzing Genootschap (Ampzing society), an organisation which opposes the unnecessary use of English words in Dutch (see Figure 3.1). It depicts the Haarlem writer Samuel Ampzing (1590-1632), who, as the Ampzing society points out, in his day fought the excessive use of Latin and French loanwords (Van de Gevel, n.d.). The cartoon shows Ampzing being confronted with a page from a present-day newspaper with job advertisements full of English terms and exclaiming "No wonder they can't find any personnel in Holland...!" (Ampzing Genootschap, 2004, p. 28; Ampzing Genootschap, n.d.). The implication is clearly that according to Ampzing the use of English is not suitable for this Dutch context, and is not an effective way of reaching the Dutch target group of these job ads.



Figure 3.1. Samuel Ampzing: “No wonder they can’t find any personnel in Holland...!” (Ampzing Genootschap, 2004, p. 28). Reproduced with permission from the Ampzing Genootschap (www.ampzing.nl).

If the *senders* of job ad messages regard certain English terms as not assimilated into Dutch, this may be a non-symbolic reason for them not to use them in their job ads, whereas they may decide to use them if they consider such terms as assimilated. If the *receivers* of a job ad message regard English terms as not assimilated, this may lead to a negative *attitude towards the job ad message*, while they may take a neutral or positive attitude towards a job ad message containing English terms they consider assimilated. In turn, attitudes towards the job ad may affect *behavioural (application) intentions* (cf. Van Rooy et al., 2006, as discussed in Chapter 1.2) and – via intentions – ultimately *application behaviour*.

Labelling English as assimilated or not assimilated is seen as a non-symbolic comment because it seems a matter of deciding whether or not English terms are regularly used in Dutch or other languages, which is objectively measurable. However, writers who label the use of English in Dutch or other languages as “odd” may also be making a symbolic comment in that they indicate that English is unpleasantly deviant, in other words that they ascribe certain immeasurable qualities to English.

3.3.7 The use of English in the organisation’s sector

It has been suggested that the use of English in job ads reflects the use of English in the sector in which the organisation with the vacancy operates.

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Watts (2002, p. 118) remarks that descriptions of the organisations' activities in Swiss job ads contain English "terms which are specific to the business interests of the firm, e.g. software developers, banks, finance houses, etc." This is in line with the findings of corpus analyses of English in product advertising in various EFL countries, which show that the use of English depends on the type of product that is offered (e.g. Cheshire & Moser 1994; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van Hooft, et al., 2007; Griffin 1997; Hsu, 2008; Neelankavil, Mummalaneni, & Sessions, 1995).

The use of English which is characteristic of the sector in which an organisation operates is a non-symbolic reason for *senders* of job ad messages to use English in their job advertisements. This reason can also be related to *context* in the model in Figure 1.4 (Chapter 1.3.6), since it is not limited to one particular organisation but is the result of language use in the domain in which an organisation is active.

Table 3.2 summarises the symbolic and non-symbolic reasons and attitudes towards English in job ads expressed in published views discussed in Sections 3.2 and 3.3, and the elements of the model to which they can be related.

Table 3.2. Symbolic and non-symbolic reasons and attitudes towards English in job ads and the elements of the model to which they can be related

Reason/attitude	Sender	Message	Receiver				Context	
			Comprehension	Attitude to organisation	Attitude to job	Attitude to message	Behavioural (application) intentions	Behaviour (application)
Symbolic								
Image and prestige	+			+	+		+	+
Puffed up and bombastic	+			+	+	+		+
Global image building	+			+			+	+
Suggest modernity	+			+	+		+	+
English sounds better	+	+			+			+
Create atmosphere	+				+		+	+
Importance of English language skills	+						+	+
English corporate language	+			+			+	+
Threat to the Dutch language		+					+	+
Non-symbolic								
Comprehensibility	+		+				+	+
Avoid gender bias	+			+			+	+
Create international consistency	+							
Attract attention	+						+	+
Fill lexical gaps	+							
Assimilation of English terms	+							
Use of English in sector	+					+	+	+
Note: '+', indicates that a reason/attitude can be linked to the element in the column header.								

Note. '+' indicates that a reason/attitude can be linked to the element in the column header.

3.4 The problem of the generalisability of published views on English in job advertising as support for the model of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands

The analysis of published views about English in job advertisements in the Netherlands and other European EFL countries supports the relevance of the various elements of the model described in Section 1.3.6. It has shown that both symbolic and non-symbolic reasons for and attitudes towards English in job advertisements are mentioned, which can be related to the sender of the job ad message, the job ad message itself, the receivers of the job ad message, and to their context. With respect to the receivers, more specifically, these reasons and attitudes can be related to their attitude to the organisation, the position advertised, the text of the job advertisement, their behavioural (application) intentions, and actual application behaviour.

It should be stressed that the reasons for and attitudes to the use of English in job advertising discussed here are those of their originators only, based on their analysis of examples or general impressions, although the validity of these views is supported by the fact that most of them were encountered in various independent sources, not just in relation to job ads but also in relation to product ads, and, in some cases, in relation to English in general. However, it is not known whether the reasons mentioned (e.g. increasing prestige and attention) are actually shared by makers of job ads. Neither is it clear whether interpretations of the use of English (for instance in terms of this being motivated by lexical gaps in the first language of the country where the ads are published, or by multinational organisations' desire to create international consistency) can be extended beyond the examples given. Nor is it known whether the attitudes expressed are shared by the target groups at which the job ads aim, whether the effects described (e.g. lack of clarity, increase of the job's perceived prestige, a sense that the ad is odd) are also experienced by them. The latter point, i.e. the extent to which target groups of job ads share the views of the effects of English discussed above, can be related to what has been called the "spokesman problem" in connection with attitudes about the use of English in the Netherlands (De Bot & Weltens, 1997, pp. 145-147). The views about the effects of English in job ads treated above are those of academics, companies

Published views on English in job advertising

and opinion leaders, such as writers, and the question is to what extent they can speak for “ordinary” language users. De Bot and Weltens (1997) illustrate the spokesman problem by showing that claims by opinion leaders that speakers of Dutch are indifferent about the Dutch language losing ground to English are not borne out by more general surveys. Similarly, as De Bot and Weltens point out, in a survey among French shoppers, Flaitz (1988, p. 197) found that their attitudes to English were more favourable than the hostile attitudes encountered in “the subjective discourse of the French elite in official or academic positions”.

Along with notions derived from more theoretical and empirically based literature on the role of English in product advertising, which informed the model in Chapter 1.3.6, the published views about the use of English in job ads described in this chapter will serve as input for the research questions presented in Chapter 4 that guide the empirical studies in Chapters 5 to 7. Among other objectives, these empirical studies will set out to determine to what extent the published views on English in job ads are supported by the views of authors of job ads (Chapter 5), by the findings of analyses of corpora of job ads (Chapter 6), and by the reactions of potential job seekers to English in job ads as elicited in experiments (Chapter 7).

Chapter 4 - The role of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands: Research questions

This chapter presents and motivates the research questions (RQs) for the empirical studies that follow. These RQs are based on the model of English in job ads in the Netherlands, which was formulated on the basis of literature about job advertising and about English in product advertising (Chapter 1). They are also informed by literature about the position of English in the Netherlands, especially about the occurrence and effects of English in Dutch product advertising (Chapter 2), and by published views on English in job ads in the Netherlands and other EFL countries (Chapter 3).

The RQs are presented in the order of the successive stages in the sender - message - receiver model of foreign languages in advertising outlined in Chapter 1.3.6. Section 4.1 discusses studies relating to the sender perspective on the use of English in job ads, which will lead to the RQs for the interviews with makers of job ads. Section 4.2 presents literature pertaining to the actual use of English in job advertising messages and the factors on which this depends, leading to the RQs for the corpus analyses. Sections 4.3 and 4.4 motivate the RQs for the experimental studies into the effect of the use of English on the receivers of these job ads. Section 4.3 provides the rationale for experiments involving job ads as a whole, and Section 4.4 explains the need for experimental research focusing on job titles as a salient element in job ads. The chapter ends with a summary of what the present study aims to add to existing empirical research into English in job ads in the Netherlands (Section 4.5).

4.1 Reasons for using English in job advertisements in the Netherlands: The need to determine the senders' perspective

As Chapter 3 has indicated, the reasons given in the literature for the use of English in job advertisements in EFL countries - such as prestige,

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international consistency, and the importance of English language skills for successful applicants – are based on researchers' analysis of examples (Hilgendorf, 1996; Hilgendorf & Martin, 2001; Larson, 1990; Moore & Varantola, 2005; Peereboom, 1991; Seitz, 2008; Tiggeler & Doeve, n.d.; Watts, 2002).

In a discussion of the analysis of professional genres in general, Bhatia (1993, p. 12) points out that, in addition to researchers, "specialist informants also have an important role to play in the description, analysis and clarification of genres". Bhatia stresses that it is important to check researchers' findings against the views of such specialist informants, i.e. the members of the professional community that produces the genre texts (p. 34), since they "have greater knowledge of the conventional purpose(s), construction and use of specific genres than those who are non-specialists" (p. 15). Harwood (2006) compares corpus analyses of text features with asking the writers of these texts to comment on these text features. He observes that, while corpus analyses can reveal patterns in the way these features are used, only questioning the authors "can provide researchers with the necessary insight into the writers' thought processes and decisions that shape the way the text turns out" (p. 425). A corpus analysis could, for instance, never indicate why a certain linguistic feature was not used, but the writer of the text could explain why this was the case. Harwood concludes that a corpus analyst can only guess at the writer's intentions and motivations for using certain text features, but that these can only be discovered by asking the writer him or herself (pp. 444-445).

The need to ask the writers of professional texts for their motivation has been expressed in similar terms in relation to the use of English in product advertising in EFL countries. König (1974) carried out one of the first studies in which companies were asked for their motivation to use English words in the product advertisements they had placed. He points out that up to then the reasons given for the use of English words in this context were based on assumptions and lacked a secure foundation: "der Untersuchung der Verwendungsmotivation [von Anglizismen im Deutschen wurde] bisher kaum Beachtung geschenkt. ... Wo immer Ursachen der Verwendung genannt werden, gründen sie sich auf Vermutungen und entbehren der gesicherten Grundlage" [hardly any attention so far has been paid to the study of the motivation for using

[Anglicisms in German] ... If causes of use were mentioned at all, they were based on assumptions and lacked a secure foundation] (König, 1974, as cited in Viereck, 1980, p. 252). Wetzler (2006) also underlines the need to study the motivation for the use of English in German product advertising from the perspective of the producers of the ads. She states that pronouncements about the reasons for the use of English from the literature which are not based on such research are subjective judgements without empirical basis ("subjektive Einschätzungen, nicht aber empirisch untermauerte Aussagen", p. 24).

Although Wetzler (2006, pp. 23-24) remarks that there have been hardly any studies in which makers of product advertisements in Germany are asked for their reasons for using English, there would appear to be at least a number of such studies (Clyne, 1973; Wetzler, 2006; various investigations reported in Fink et al., 1995, and in Viereck, 1980), and such research has also been conducted in other parts of the world where English is a foreign language: Ecuador (Alm, 2003), France (Martin, 2006), Taiwan (Hsu, 2008), Thailand (Masavisut et al., 1986), and the Netherlands (Baker & Van Gelder, 1997; Gerritsen et al., 2000); in some of these studies ad makers also indicate why they avoid using English in their advertising (Alm, Martin). However, no such research would seem to have been carried out with respect to job advertisements. This means that the reasons makers of job ads in EFL countries have for using or avoiding English have not yet been determined. It would seem important to gather this information, since, as Bhatia (1993) observes, genre practitioners have knowledge of a genre that non-practitioners do not have, and, as Harwood (2006), points out, only writers can really shed light on the motivations for using particular text features. The information about job ad makers' motives for using English could be used to check whether the reasons given for this use by non-practitioner researchers are actually considered relevant by practitioners, just as Wetzler (2006) links comments by makers of product ad to the reasons given in the literature by researchers. It would also be useful to see how the reasons for the use of English given by makers of job ads compare to the reasons given for the use of English in product advertising, to see what is common to the two types of advertising and what is different. Both have been described as promotional genres (Bhatia, 2004, p. 62; Hilgendorf & Martin, 2001, p. 218), but at the same time they are distinct genres in that

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their purpose is to promote “an employment opportunity” (Hilgendorf & Martin, p. 218) versus a product, and they also have their own characteristic features, for instance in terms of moves and typical phrasing (Bhatia, in fact, depicts them as distinct members of the “colony of promotional genres”, p. 62). Knowledge about the motives and intentions for using English as identified by writers of job ads themselves is also important in that it could also be used to compare the desired impact of the use of English with the actual effect this has on potential target groups of the job ads, again similar to what Wetzler (2006) did with respect to product ads in Germany. For all these reasons, finding out why makers of job ads in the Netherlands use or avoid English would seem relevant to gaining a better understanding of this use of English and its effects.

A basic question which underlies the question as to what reasons makers of job ads have for using English or Dutch is whether they consciously decide to use or avoid English in their job ad messages. If the use of English or Dutch is the result of a conscious decision, such reasons are more likely to play an explicit role in the language the job ad makers use. While the authors discussed in Chapter 3 suggest possible reasons for the use of English in job ads, they do not comment on whether the makers of these ads use English consciously and deliberately. Research among makers of product ads in Germany provides evidence that they use English consciously (Fink et al., 1995, p. 230), but no such information is available for makers of job advertisements in the Netherlands.

Another issue relating to job ad makers’ decision to use English is to what extent they consider the comprehensibility of English in these decisions. As we have seen in Chapter 3.3.1, a number of people have expressed doubts about the comprehensibility of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands and other European EFL countries. Research involving makers of product ads in Germany has shown that they do not consider the comprehensibility of English to be a problem for the target groups of the ads they place, but that they do not usually test whether this is so (Fink et al., 1995, pp. 214, 230; König, 1974, as cited in Viereck, 1980, p. 252; Wetzler, 2006, pp. 303-304). Again, no such information is available about makers of job advertisements in the Netherlands.

Finally, the model of the role of English in job advertisements presented in Chapter 1.3.6, which describes possible reasons for this

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language use, is largely based on literature on English in product ads in EFL countries. It has not yet been empirically examined whether its suggestion that reasons for the use of English may be symbolic or non-symbolic, and its suggestions as to the entities these reasons may refer to, actually apply to job advertisements. One way of finding empirical support for the model in these respects is to determine whether makers of job ads give symbolic and non-symbolic reasons for using or not using English and whether the entities to which their reasons refer match those described in the model.

The aim of the interviews with makers of job advertisements in the Netherlands therefore is to answer the following research questions and sub-questions:

- RQ 1: To what extent do makers of job ads consciously decide to use English or Dutch in the ads they place?
- RQ 2: How do makers of job ads view the comprehensibility of the English or Dutch they use, and to what extent do they test this?
- RQ 2a: To what extent do makers of job ads consider the comprehension of the English or Dutch they use to be a problem for the ads' target groups?
- RQ 2b: In what ways have the makers of job ads tested whether the English or Dutch they use is a problem for the ads' target groups?
- RQ 3: What reasons do job ad makers give for using or not using English in job ads, and how do these reasons relate to the model described in Chapter 1.3?
- RQ 3a: To what extent do job ad makers give symbolic reasons for using or not using English?
- RQ 3b: To what extent do job ad makers give non-symbolic reasons for using or not using English?
- RQ 3c: To which of the entities described in the model (sender, message, receiver, context) do the symbolic reasons given by the job ad makers relate?
- RQ 3d: To which of the entities described in the model (sender, message, receiver, context) do the non-symbolic reasons given by the job ad makers relate?

4.2 The actual use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands and factors on which it depends: The need for corpus analyses of job ad messages

Incidental observations suggest that English is widely used in job advertisements in the Netherlands. This section argues that corpus analyses should be conducted to determine the actual extent of this use of English. Obtaining information about the actual extent to which English is used is not just an end in itself, but is also necessary to determine whether the number of occurrences is high enough to justify conducting experiments into its effects. If English is indeed found to occur frequently, the information gathered about its extent can also be used to provide realistic input for such experiments. Such corpus analyses can also be used to gain greater insight into the *factors* that determine the extent to which English is used. Section 4.2.1 will first discuss the need to determine the actual extent of the use of English in job ads through corpus analyses, and Section 4.2.2 will go on to discuss the need to investigate six factors that may determine the extent to which English is used.

4.2.1 The need to determine the actual extent of the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands through corpus analyses

As we have seen in Chapter 3.1, a number of authors have remarked that the use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands is widespread (Jansen, 2006, p. 7; Renkema et al., 2001, p. 257; Nortier, 2009, p. 24; Schreiner, 1990, p. 7). However, these remarks were based on the writers' impressions and not on systematic counts. The actual extent of the use of English in job ads can only be investigated with quantitative empirical methods, through corpus analyses. The need for such empirical research is stressed by Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van Hooft, et al. (2007, p. 293) in relation to the study of English in various contexts in Europe:

Even though numerous linguists and the general public seem convinced that English is now being increasingly used in Europe, most notably by those who do not speak it as a

first language, there is a pressing need for further empirical investigation to confirm this [...] Much work remains to be done on how often English really is used in a certain context or situation in Europe, not only on the basis of observations or self-reports, but on the basis of sound empirical data.

To measure the extent to which English is used in job ads in the Netherlands, it is not enough to determine the percentage of ads containing English. As Gerritsen (1995, p. 331) points out in relation to product ads, ads containing fewer English words are “less English” than ads containing more English words, and it is therefore relevant to take into account the proportion of English words in a job ad. Following this same line of argument, Gerritsen remarks that it is also important to distinguish completely English from partly English ads, since all-English ads score higher on “Englishity” (p. 332). Similarly, Martin (2002, p. 385) ranks product ads published in non-Anglophone countries on what she calls “a cline of code-mixed advertising”, depending on the degree to which they use English, with “English monolingual” ads as one pole, and “host-language monolingual” ads as the other, and ads with decreasing percentages of English elements in between.

4.2.2 Corpus analyses to establish factors determining the extent to which English is used

Corpus analyses can also be used to establish factors on which the extent of the use of English in job advertising may depend. The remainder of this section will identify six such factors from the model described in Chapter 1.3. These factors relate to aspects of the organisation offering the vacancy, aspects of the job that is advertised, of the job advertisement, and of the English words used in the job ad. First, the organisational aspects will be discussed (the multinational vs. domestic status of the organisation; the sector to which the organisation belongs), followed by the level of the job, job ad elements, and, finally, aspects at word level (the presence or absence of Dutch equivalents; the potential difficulty of the English words for Dutch readers). The factors investigated all concerned non-symbolic reasons for the use of English as defined in Chapter 1.3. Such reasons were considered

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suited for corpus analyses because they refer to aspects that are objectively observable in the advertisement or the real world outside the advertisement. Factors relating to symbolic reasons for the use of English were not investigated, because such reasons involve qualities or characteristics that are not objectively observable, and, were, therefore, not considered suited for corpus analyses.

Multinational vs. domestic status of the organisation offering the vacancy

As we have seen in Chapter 3.3.3, Larson (1990) suggests that job ads published in Sweden by multinational companies use English-language job titles, as well as English words for the field in which these organisations work, for the sake of international consistency. It was pointed out that this was in line with statements by makers of product advertisements that English words and phrases, such as slogans, are used in ads from international companies in various countries as part of a global marketing strategy (Alm, 2003, p. 150). For product ads, these observations are supported by empirical research. In a study of Polish magazine advertisements, Griffin (1997) found that ads for foreign products and from foreign advertisers contained more English than ads for Polish products and from Polish advertisers. However, it has not yet been established with numerical data whether the extent to which English is used in job ads in the Netherlands or any other EFL country is indeed determined by whether the organisation placing the ad is a multinational or only operates in the country in which the ad appears.

This factor concerns a non-symbolic reason relating to the *sender* of the job ad message, the organisation that advertised the vacancy.

The sector of the organisation offering the vacancy

In his study of examples of the use of English in job advertisements in Switzerland, Watts (2002, p. 118) observes that company descriptions may include English “terms which are specific to the business interests of the firm”. It would seem logical to expect more English to be used in job ads from organisations in certain lines of business than in others. ICT companies,

for instance, are likely to use a great deal of English in Dutch job ads, since computer terminology used in the Netherlands is generally of English origin (Van der Sijs, 1996, p. 322; 2005, p. 339). Empirical studies in various EFL countries have shown that English is used more in advertisements for certain types of products than for others (e.g. Cheshire & Moser 1994; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van Hooft, et al., 2007; Griffin 1997; Hsu, 2008; Neelankavil, Mummаланeni, & Sessions, 1995). However, quantitative research has not yet been done to establish whether the use of English in job ads indeed depends on the sector to which the organisation offering the vacancy belongs.

This factor concerns a non-symbolic reason relating to the *context* in which the organisation with the vacancy operates, the economic sector to which it belongs.

The educational level required for the position advertised

In Chapter 2.2.5, it was pointed out that the level of English proficiency of Dutch secondary-school pupils depended on their educational level – the higher the secondary school type, the higher pupils' English language proficiency (Bonnet, 2004, p. 139; Van Hest, De Jong, & Stoks, 2001, as cited in Edelenbos & De Jong, 2004, p. 24) – and on the basis of this, it was suggested that organisations may use less English in job ads aiming at less well educated candidates, in order to prevent comprehension problems (Chapter 2.3). However, whether the use of English in job ads depends on the educational level required for the position offered has not yet been established with quantitative studies.

There is some evidence that the use of English in product advertising and branding may depend on the socio-economic and educational status of the target group. Interviews with representatives of Ecuadorian advertising agencies revealed that they use English especially when targeting the “upper-middle and upper classes” and that they avoid using it in advertising targeted at the lower and lower middle classes “with little educational background” (Alm, 2003, p. 151). In line with this, Alm also found that the use of English in names of shops in shopping centres for higher social classes was more widespread than in shopping centres for lower social classes. She links this to a better knowledge of English among

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the higher social classes, who have received better education (p. 147). While Alm's findings suggest that the use of English in messages aimed at people with a higher level of education is likely to be more extensive than in messages aimed at people with a lower level of education, her findings may not automatically be extrapolated to the Netherlands since the social economic conditions and educational level of especially the lower classes are likely to be different in the Netherlands and Ecuador.

In a study of the use of English in product advertising in five European countries, including the Netherlands, Gerritsen (1995) hypothesised that English would occur more frequently in print media aiming at higher social classes than in those targeting lower social classes. Although she observes that it is difficult to pinpoint exactly which media target which social class, and that different publications within one print medium category may target different social classes (p. 327), she expected the following hierarchy of media, in order of descending number of ads containing English: newspapers > glossy women's magazines > news magazines > family magazines (p. 328). On the whole, the frequencies of all-English and partly English ads found in Gerritsen's study did not confirm this hierarchy. However, the findings for the Netherlands did show that English was used most frequently in glossy women's magazines and least frequently in family magazines. The use of English here is at least partly in line with the expected hierarchy, which may be taken to indicate that a readership with a higher social class may at least sometimes lead to a greater use of English in product ads (for an alternative interpretation in terms of life style rather than social class, see Gerritsen, p. 340).

While there are indications that the use of English in product advertisements and branding may depend on the educational level of the readership, no studies have yet investigated whether the use of English in job ads depends on the educational level of the ad's target group, in other words, the educational level required for the position offered.

This factor concerns a non-symbolic reason, the educational level required for the position that is advertised, which could be said to relate to the content of the job ad *message*, or to characteristics of the *receivers* of the job ad message.

Job ad element

Many of the comments made about the use of English in job ads in EFL countries suggest that it is particularly frequent in certain job ad elements and less so in others. As we have seen in Section 3.1, Schreiner (1990, p. 7) states that English is used frequently in job titles in Dutch job advertisements. In fact, most of the examples of English in Dutch job ads quoted to illustrate its frequency are job titles (Jansen, 2006; Nortier, 2009; Renkema et al, 2001, as discussed in Section 3.1; see also the cartoon from the Ampzing society in Figure 3.1 in Section 3.3.6), which suggests that this use is considered most characteristic of the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands. With respect to Swedish job ads, Larson (1990, p. 367) points out that “English vocabulary can be found scattered throughout the text, but where the English lexicon is used most is in descriptions of work areas and occupational titles”.¹⁰ Hilgendorf (1996) observes that “numerous positions advertised in German in the *Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung* (FAZ) have job titles reflecting various degrees of Englishization” (p. 10), while English in headlines in these ads is “used sparingly” (p. 11). Taavitsainen and Pahta (2003, p. 8) say that two forms of English usage are common in job advertisements in the biggest Finnish newspaper: completely English ads, and ads in which the job title is in English while the remainder of the ad is in Finnish. However, none of these writers quantify the relative frequency of the use of English in particular parts of job ads. Research into product advertising has also studied the relative frequency of English in various parts of advertisements in EFL countries (e.g. Alm, 2003; Bhatia, 2001; Cheshire & Moser, 1994; Gerritsen, 1995; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van Hooft, et al., 2007; Piller, 2001). Although not all these studies present numerical data for all of the ad elements they distinguish (Alm, Gerritsen, and Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van Hooft, et al. do, while Bhatia and Piller only present figures for some of the elements), they all find that the frequency with which English is used varies per element of the advertisement. Some of the studies of English in product advertising indicate that it is important to determine the parts in which English is relatively frequently used because the use of

¹⁰ In terms of the job ad elements distinguished in Chapter 1.2.3, what Larson calls “work areas”, which from the examples he gives can be taken to indicate the field in which the organisation works (1990, p. 367), are part of the company description.

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English in certain parts may have more impact than in others. Cheshire and Moser (1994, pp. 456-457) and Piller (2001, pp. 161-162), for instance, suggest that English is given more prominence when it is used in parts of the ad which stand out, in the sense that they are more likely to be noticed sooner by readers of the ad, parts such as the headline and the slogan as opposed to the body copy, for example. For job ads, De Witte (1989, p. 212) reports on eye movement research which indicated that the job title is an element that stands out, since this was what made readers of job advertisements decide “to move to the next advertisement”. However, there are no quantitative data available that show how much English is used in job titles compared to other job ad elements, because no empirical research has been conducted to establish whether the quantity of English used differs per job ad element.

This factor concerns a non-symbolic reason relating to the job ad *message*, i.e. the part of the ad in which it occurs.

English words as lexical gap fillers

In Chapter 3.3.5, it was pointed out that a possible reason for the use of English words in job advertisements in EFL countries is that they fill lexical gaps: they have a meaning which is not expressed by existing words in the national language of the country in which the job ads appear. It was observed that this was cited as a general reason for the use of foreign loanwords (Hock, 1986, pp. 408-409; Wetzler, 2006, pp. 27-28), and was also mentioned as a reason for the use of English words in product advertising in EFL countries (Alm 2003, p. 150; Gerritsen et al., 2000, p. 20; Masavisut et al., 1986, p. 204; Takashi, 1990, p. 329). At the same time, it was stressed that this is only one of the reasons given for the use of foreign words. Prestige, for instance, is said to be another basic reason for using loanwords (Hock, pp. 408-409; Wetzler, pp. 27-28). In fact, research into product advertising indicates that reasons other than the need to fill a lexical gap are more important in explaining the use of English words. Takashi (1990) found that around 30% of the English loanwords used in Japanese advertising were technical and non-technical words for which there were no equivalents in Japanese, while about 45% were “special-effects-givers”, words which have Japanese equivalents but which are “borrowed to convey a modernity and sophistication about the subject matter under discussion” (p. 330). Gerritsen

et al. (2000, p. 20) reported that none of the commercials broadcast on Dutch television that they investigated “contained English words that lack good Dutch equivalents”, from which they conclude that the use of these words must be motivated by “image considerations” and a desire to save translation costs. In order to decide to what extent the lexical gap theory can explain the use of English in job ads, quantitative research is necessary to determine how many of the English words in Dutch job advertisements have Dutch translation equivalents.

This factor again concerns a non-symbolic reason relating to the job ad *message*, i.e. to aspects of the words in the advertisement.

The potential level of difficulty of English words for Dutch readers

As was discussed in Chapter 3.3.1, a number of authors (Jansen, 2006, p. 7; Kuiper, 2007; Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2003, p. 8) – as well as the Eiffel radio commercials – have suggested that the use of English in job ads in EFL countries, including the Netherlands, may present comprehension problems, while others suggest that English terms should be clear to the target group of the job ad (Timmerman, 1992, pp. 165-166; Watts, 2002, p. 119). Just like their perceived prestige-enhancing effect, the actual comprehension of English words can only be investigated in experiments. However, a corpus analysis can give an indication of the level of difficulty of English words. On the basis of a corpus analysis of product advertisements in Swiss magazines, Cheshire and Moser (1994, pp. 457-458) argue that the majority of the English words used should be easy to understand for Swiss readers because these words are part of the basic English vocabulary such readers are expected to know, or because they resemble German or French words, i.e., have German or French cognates. In line with Cheshire and Moser’s argument, whether the potential level of difficulty of English words for Dutch readers is a factor determining their use in Dutch job ads can be investigated with corpus analyses that establish how many of these words have Dutch cognates and how many belong to basic English vocabulary, vocabulary which is so frequent that most Dutch people may be expected to be familiar with it.

Again, this factor concerns a non-symbolic reason relating to the job ad *message*, i.e. to aspects of the words in the advertisement.

4.2.3 Earlier empirical quantitative research into the use of English in Dutch job ads and its limitations

While there have been a number of studies of the frequency with which English is used in Dutch product advertisements (Gerritsen, 1995, Gerritsen et al., 2000; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van Hooft et al., 2007; Smakman et al., 2009; see Chapter 2.2.3), there appears to have been only one published study of the frequency with which English is used in job advertisements in the Netherlands, or indeed in any EFL country. Gerritsen (2001) investigated the presence of English gender-neutral job titles – such as “engineer” and “director” – in headings of job ads from the national Dutch daily *De Telegraaf* and the Dutch national weekly *Intermediair* in 1989 and 1999 (a study which is also reported in Gerritsen, 2002, pp. 102-103). While in 1989 31% of these headings contained English gender-neutral job titles (70 in a corpus of 225 job ads), this was 45% in 1999 (260 in a corpus of 573 ads). Although these findings indicate that English is used fairly frequently in job titles in Dutch job ads, the scope of Gerritsen’s study also indicates that much of the research agenda regarding the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands outlined in this section is still to be carried out. Since the aim of Gerritsen’s study was expressly to investigate the use of gender-neutral terms in job titles, it did not take into account the use of English in other job ad elements, the proportion of the ad that is English, the number of all-English and partly English ads, nor the factors on which the use of English may depend.

4.2.4 Research questions for the corpus analyses

In conclusion, Section 4.2 has argued that there is a need for corpus analyses of the use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands. It has indicated that such empirical quantitative research is not only useful because it reveals how much English is actually used, but also because it can indicate whether it is sufficiently widespread to justify experiments that test its effects, and because its findings can be used as input for the material that can be used in such experiments. It has identified two aims for corpus-analytical studies of English in job ads in the Netherlands:

Research questions

- A. to establish the extent to which English is used in job ads in the Netherlands;
- B. to establish whether the extent of this use is determined by a number of non-symbolic factors, identified on the basis of published views on English job ads and empirical research into English in product ads.

The overarching research question relating to the *extent* to which English is used is:

RQ 4: To what extent is English used in job advertisements in the Netherlands?

This question can be subdivided into the following more specific research questions:

- RQ 4a: What proportion of job advertisements contains English?
- RQ 4b: What proportion of job advertisements is completely in English?
- RQ 4c: What proportion of job advertisements is partly in English?
- RQ 4d: What proportion of words in partly English ads is in English?

The overarching research question relating to the *factors* that determine the extent to which English is used is:

RQ 5: What factors can be shown to determine the extent to which English used in job advertisements in the Netherlands?

On the basis of the literature discussed above, this question can be subdivided into the following more specific research questions:

- RQ 5a: To what extent does the proportion of English used in job advertisements depend on the multinational as opposed to domestic status of the organisations advertising the vacancy?
- RQ 5b: To what extent does the proportion of English used in job advertisements depend on the economic sector of the organisation with the job vacancy?

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- RQ 5c: To what extent does the proportion of English used in job advertisements depend on the educational level required for the position that is advertised?
- RQ 5d: To what extent are there differences in the proportion of English used in the various parts of partly English job advertisements?
- RQ 5e: What proportion of English words used in job advertisements have Dutch translation equivalents?
- RQ 5f: What proportion of English words used in job advertisements are expected to be relatively easy to understand for Dutch readers with a basic knowledge of English, because they have Dutch cognates and/or are among the most frequent words in the English language?

As was pointed out in the discussion of the factors above, these research questions can be related to various elements of the model of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands. They all investigate to what extent the use of English is determined by non-symbolic reasons. RQ 5a investigates to what extent it is determined by a reason relating to the *sender* of the job ad message, the organisation that advertised the vacancy. RQ 5b investigates to what extent the use of English is determined by a non-symbolic reason relating to the *context* in which the organisation with the vacancy operates, the economic sector to which it belongs. RQs 5c, 5d, 5e and 5f investigate to what extent the use of English is determined by non-symbolic reasons relating to the job ad *message*: the position that is advertised in the advertisement, the part of the advertisement, and aspects of the words in the advertisement.

4.3 Measuring the effects of the use of English in job advertisements on their Dutch target groups: The need for experiments involving receivers of job ad messages

As we have seen in Chapter 3, a number of claims have been made about the effects of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands and other EFL countries, which are based on the observers' impressions. The actual effects of this use of English on the target groups of the job ads have remained

largely untested. The current section will indicate the need for experiments to fill this gap. On the basis of the theoretical model of the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands that was presented in Chapter 1.3, it will describe what effects such experiments should measure, and it will also identify what the experiments should add to existing experimental research.

The topics discussed in this section are the following: the aspects of Dutch potential applicants' responses to job ads that may be affected by the use of English (4.3.1); reasons for conducting experiments into the effects of English in job ads and the effects that such experiments need to investigate (4.3.2); the motivation for conducting experiments that compare the impact of English versus Dutch in job ads (4.3.3); existing experimental research comparing the impact of English and Dutch in job ads and its limitations (4.3.4); reasons for studying the impact of all-English job ads on Dutch respondents (4.3.5). The section ends by presenting the research questions for the experiments (4.3.6).

4.3.1 Aspects of Dutch potential applicants' responses to job ads that may be affected by the use of English

The receiver's side of the model of the use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands presented in Chapter 1.3, which was developed on the basis of general language attitude research and of theoretical and experimental studies of foreign language use in product advertising, indicates that the use of English may affect the following five aspects of Dutch potential applicants' responses to the ads they read and what is promoted in them:

- attitude towards the ad;
- comprehension both of the words and phrases that are in English and of the advertisement as a whole;
- attitude towards the job advertised and the organisation advertising the job;
- behavioural intentions with respect to the job that is advertised;
- actual behaviour with respect to the job that is advertised.

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All of these aspects have been argued to be important in the persuasion process that the advertisements aim to contribute to (see Chapter 1.3). The relevance of attitude towards the ad, towards the job advertised and towards the organisation, and of behavioural intentions is underlined by experimental studies of the effects that information in job advertisements, and the way this information is presented, including phrasing, has on readers of such ads (see Chapter 1.2.4). The second aspect, comprehension, was not investigated in such studies.

Indications that the use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands may affect several of the aspects described in the theoretical model have been provided by published views expressing reasons for and attitudes towards the use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands and other EFL countries (Chapter 3.2 and 3.3). These indicate that the use of English may influence attitude towards the ad and attitude towards the job (either positively or negatively, e.g. by making it seem more prestigious or puffed up), may negatively influence comprehension, or have no negative impact on comprehension, and may influence application intentions. No explicit views have been expressed about the effect of the use of English or Dutch on attitude towards the organisation, and its effect on actual job applications has only been commented on jokingly in the cartoon published by the *Ampzing Genootschap* (2004), which suggests that the use of English in job ads in a Dutch newspaper leads to no Dutch candidates being found for the vacancies (see Figure 3.1). However, in the discussion of several of the published views links were made with the possible effect of English on actual application behaviour.

4.3.2 Reasons to conduct experiments into the effects of English in job ads and the effects that need to be investigated

The suggestion that the use of English in job advertisements may affect the aspects of responses of their Dutch target groups indicated above is based on four sources: general language attitude research; theory and experiments relating to the effects of foreign language use in product ads; experimental research into the effects of the way job ad information is presented; and published views with incidental observations about the effect of the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands and other EFL countries. It is not based

on systematic research of the effects of the use of English in job ads on their Dutch target groups. Such systematic research is necessary to determine whether English indeed affects Dutch people's response to the job ads. Experiments would appear to be the appropriate method to conduct this systematic research, since they allow for a controlled manipulation of the use of English in job ads and for explicit measurement of its effects on comparable respondents with respect to most of the aspects identified as relevant in the theoretical model.

The only aspect of the impact of English that cannot easily be studied through experiments is its effect on actual behaviour, that is, whether the use of English in job ads means that respondents in real-life situations do or not apply for the job advertised. Even though it is not impossible, it is hard to imagine that organisations would be prepared to advertise a real vacancy through different versions of job ads in which the use of English was manipulated. And for ethical reasons, it would be unacceptable to place fake job advertisements and pass them off as ads for real vacancies. If the study of actual behaviour is, therefore, omitted, this means that experimental studies should focus on determining the effects of the use of English in job ads on four aspects of the response of their Dutch target groups:

- attitude towards the ad;
- comprehension both of the words and phrases that are in English and of the advertisement as a whole;
- attitude towards the job advertised and the organisation advertising the job;
- behavioural intentions with respect to the job that is advertised.

Three of these aspects, attitude towards the ad, comprehension and behavioural intentions with respect to the job, need further specification in light of the findings of earlier investigations.

Studies which have linked attitude towards the job ad to applicants' evaluation of the attractiveness of the organisation and to job pursuit intentions (Jones et al., 2006; Van Rooy et al., 2006; see Chapter 1.2.4) indicate the importance of the attractiveness of the ad, and therefore the

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influence of the English on the ad's attractiveness would appear to be a relevant topic for investigation.

As was pointed out in Chapter 2.2.5, tests have shown that Dutch people overestimate their comprehension of English. A general English language proficiency test found that Dutch people overestimate their passive (listening and reading) proficiency (Van Onna & Jansen, 2006c), and experiments with product advertisements have revealed that the percentage of Dutch respondents claiming that they were able to translate English passages from such ads was larger than the percentage that gave correct translations of these passages (Gerritsen, 1996; Gerritsen et al., 2000). Experiments that test the comprehension of English in job ads should, therefore, investigate both respondents' own estimations of the difficulty of English vs. Dutch terms and their actual comprehension of these terms.

As for behavioural intentions with respect to the job, Chapman et al. (2005, p. 929) in their meta-analysis of correlates of recruiting outcomes distinguish two such intentions, job pursuit intentions and acceptance intentions. They point out that "measures of acceptance intentions assess the likelihood that an applicant would accept a job offer if one were forthcoming". This therefore would involve applicants considering a situation that would arise after they have applied and have been found suitable by the organisation. Chapman et al. remark that job pursuit intentions, which they define as "applicant intentions to pursue a job or to remain in the applicant pool", "are typically measured early in the recruitment process". Job pursuit intentions would therefore seem a more appropriate variable to use than acceptance intentions when people evaluate job ads, since evaluation of job ads is an activity in which potential applicants engage at the beginning of the recruitment process.

4.3.3 Motivation for conducting experiments that *compare* the impact of English versus Dutch in job ads

Experimental studies of the effect of second-language use in advertising can be divided into two basic types. In one type, respondents are asked to respond only to advertisements or parts of advertisements in which the second language is used (e.g. Fink, 1975, 1977; Fink et al., 1995; Gerritsen, 1996; Gerritsen et al., 2000; Rash, 1996; Wetzler, 2006). In the second type,

respondents' reactions to ads or parts of ads that use the readers' second language are compared with reactions to the same ads or parts of ads that use the readers' first language (e.g. Dasselaar et al., 2005; Dublish, 2001; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt et al., 2007; Hornikx & Starren, 2006; Hornikx et al., 2010; Luna & Peracchio, 2001, 2002b, 2005a, 2005b; Luna et al., 2003; Noriega & Blair, 2008; Petrof, 1990; Renkema et al., 2001; Smakman et al., 2009; Toffoli & Laroche, 2002). For easy reference, the two types will be referred as L2-effect studies and comparative L1-L2-effect studies, respectively.

Renkema et al. (2001) indicate that L2-effect studies do not allow comparisons between the effects of first- and second-language use in advertising (p. 257), while comparative L1-L2-effect studies do. They illustrate their point by observing that if an English slogan is evaluated negatively by Dutch respondents, that does not mean very much if it is not known how the equivalent Dutch slogan would be evaluated. Since it is important to have a point of reference against which the effect of English in job ad can be judged, the experiments in the current study will follow those of the comparative L1-L2-effect type in comparing Dutch respondents' reactions to job advertisements containing English with reactions to job ads containing equivalent Dutch formulations.

4.3.4 Existing experimental research comparing the impact of English and Dutch in job ads and its limitations

While there have been a number of experimental studies of the effect on Dutch respondents of the use of English in product advertising (Dasselaar et al., 2005; Gerritsen, 1996; Gerritsen et al., 2000; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt et al., 2007; Hornikx et al., 2010; Smakman et al., 2009), there appears to have been only one published experimental study of the effects of English in Dutch job ads, Renkema et al. (2001). In fact, as far is known, this is the only published experimental study of the effects of English or any second language in job ads, which is remarkable in comparison to the considerable amount of experimental research into the effects of English in product advertising in, for instance, German-speaking EFL countries (e.g. Fink, 1975, 1977; Fink et al., 1995; Rash, 1996; Wetzler, 2006; for an overview, see Wetzler, pp. 69-74) and of English as opposed to Spanish in product

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advertising in the USA (for overviews, see Dublish, 2001, pp. 41-42; Hernandez & Newman, 1992, p. 41; for more recent studies, see Luna & Peracchio, 2001, 2002b, 2005a, 2005b; Luna et al., 2003; Noriega & Blair, 2008). The dearth of experimental research concerning the effects of English in job ads in EFL countries is especially remarkable given the number of incidental observations relating to this use, as presented in the review in Chapter 3.

Renkema et al. (2001) studied the effects of the use of partly-English versus all-Dutch job advertisements on Dutch respondents' attitude towards the ad (attractiveness and naturalness) and attitude towards the job (beliefs about salary, educational level and years of experience of the successful applicant) and towards the organisation (image and beliefs about numbers of employees). Their study showed that the use of English as opposed to Dutch terms did not result in differences in attitudes towards the job and towards the organisation, nor in the attractiveness of the job ad, but job ads with English terms were considered to be less natural than their all-Dutch equivalents.

By investigating attitude towards the ad and attitudes to the job and the organisation, Renkema et al.'s (2001) study covers two of the four aspects of experimental research into the effect of English in job ads as they were stated above. However, experimental research is still required to determine the effects of the use of English as compared to Dutch on comprehension and on job pursuit intentions.

4.3.5 Reasons to study the impact of *all-English* job ads on Dutch respondents

Existing experimental research into the effects of English in job ads on Dutch respondents has not investigated the impact of *all-English* job ads on Dutch respondents. Although the frequency of such all-English job advertisements has not yet been established, the effect of all-English ads is theoretically worth studying since they represent the highest possible degree of the use of English in advertising in a non-Anglophone country (cf. Gerritsen, 1995, p. 332; Martin, 2002, p. 385; see Section 4.2 above).

There are three reasons for expecting that all-English ads may have a different impact than ads that contain less English. First of all, in view of

the links between comprehension and attractiveness discussed in Chapter 1.3, it is possible that all-English ads are less attractive than partly English ads because they are likely to be more difficult for Dutch readers. Secondly, there is some evidence that differences in the amount of English used may result in differences in persuasiveness. Bourhis and Giles (1976) found that the degree of persuasiveness of a message for bilingual Welsh speakers depended on the degree of the “Welshness” of the message, with a message in Standard English being less persuasive than a message in Welsh-accented English, and a message in Welsh being most persuasive. If we extrapolate from this, it may be expected that the persuasiveness of an all-English job ad for Dutch respondents is different from that of a partly English job ad. It should, however, be noted that Bourhis and Giles’ findings may not necessarily be applicable to English in job ads in the Netherlands. For bilingual Welsh speakers in Wales, English is a language of everyday communication, while English is not a language of everyday communication for most Dutch people in the Netherlands. In addition, the Bourhis and Giles study related to oral communication and not to written communication as in the case of job advertisements. The role of a Welsh accent of English as an intermediate stage between all-Welsh and all-English communication may also be different from the role of English words in a largely Dutch text as an intermediate stage between all-Dutch and all-English communication. Thirdly, there are grounds for expecting that partly English ads have a stronger impact than all-English ads in terms of the associations they evoke with English. Luna and Peracchio (2005a, 2005b) showed that the use of an English word in an otherwise Spanish slogan, and of a Spanish word in an otherwise English slogan, was salient, and led to differences in the associations evoked and in differences in evaluation of the product advertised in the slogan. The use of English in a largely Dutch job ad may be similarly salient, while the use of English in an all-English ad is not directly offset by the use of another language.

On the basis of these considerations, it would seem important to experimentally investigate the impact on Dutch respondents of all-English job ads, compared to partly English and all-Dutch job ads.

4.3.6 Research questions for the experiments

In conclusion, experiments are needed that test the effects of the use of English in job ads, as opposed to the use of Dutch in equivalent job ads, on Dutch respondents in terms of attitudes towards the ad, comprehension, attitudes towards the organisation advertising the job, attitudes towards the job that is advertised, and job pursuit intentions. Relevant aspects of attitudes towards the ad that have been identified are attractiveness and naturalness. Relevant aspects of comprehension that have been identified are comprehensibility of the ad, and estimated and actual comprehension of the English and Dutch terms used. Attitudes towards the organisation advertising the job, attitudes towards the job that is advertised, and job pursuit intentions have all been labelled as “recruiting outcomes” (Chapman et al., 2005, p. 929; see Chapter 1.2).

It was argued that it would be of theoretical interest to compare the effects of all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job ads. Whether all three types will be investigated will depend on whether the outcomes of corpus analyses show that all three are actually used rather frequently in media targeting Dutch job seekers. If all three types are indeed found, the research question will be:

RQ 6: To what extent are there differences in the effects on Dutch respondents of all-English, partly-English and all-Dutch equivalent job advertisements in terms of *attitude towards the ad* (attractiveness, naturalness), *comprehension* (estimated comprehensibility of the ad, estimated and actual comprehension of the English and Dutch terms used), and *recruiting outcomes* (attitudes towards the organisation advertising the job, attitudes towards the job that is advertised, job pursuit intentions)?

In terms of the model of the use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands discussed in Chapter 1.3, these questions relate to the effects of English on the *receivers* of the job ad message. They cover the effects of English on a number of elements identified in the model, i.e. *attitudes to the job* advertised, to the *organisation* with the vacancy, and to the job ad *message* itself, and with the outcome of such attitudes, that is *behavioural intentions*,

which in relation to job ads are job pursuit intentions. Most of the effects measured are connected with *symbolic* reasons for the use of English, as discussed in the model, i.e. with suggesting qualities and characteristics that were not objectively observable in the advertisement or the real world outside the advertisement. The question is, for instance, whether English makes the job and the organisation more attractive and more prestigious and makes the job ad itself more attractive, while the content presented is the same. One of the effects measured, however, is *non-symbolic*, because it is not to do with suggesting qualities and characteristics but with comprehension.

4.4 The need for experiments to determine the effect of the use of English in *job titles* from job advertisements on their Dutch target groups

Many of the incidental observations reported in Chapter 3 about the effects of the use of English in job advertisements relate specifically to job titles, which may be taken as an indication of the salience of the use of English in this particular part of a job ad. This section will present experimental studies that demonstrate the salience of job titles in job advertisements as well as the importance of occupational titles in determining people's views of the jobs they refer to. On the basis of this, it will argue that it is necessary to study the impact of English in job titles, not just in job ads, but also on their own. Building on the discussion in the previous section of the aspects that experimental investigations into the effects of English in job ads should focus on, it will also identify what aspects of the effects of English in job titles need to be studied.

The topics discussed in this section are the following: the reasons for studying the effect of English in job titles separately from the job ads in which they occur (4.4.1); the aspects of the effects of the use of English in job titles that need to be studied (4.4.2); existing empirical research into the impact of English job titles on respondents in EFL countries (4.4.3). The section will end by presenting the research questions for the job title experiment (4.4.4).

4.4.1 Reasons to study the effect of English in job titles separately from the job ads in which they occur

The previous section has argued that it is important to conduct experimental investigations to determine the influence of the use of English instead of Dutch in job ads on their Dutch target groups. The use of English instead of Dutch in *job titles* of employment ads aiming at Dutch people is likely to play a particularly large role in this influence, for a number of reasons.

First of all, a job title is claimed to have a signalling function, in that it evokes ideas about the activities, demands and rewards involved in the position it refers to (Ulrich & Krewerth, 2004, p. 9). This claim is supported by experimental research, which demonstrated that the use of different names for the same job (*Zahnmarzthelferin* vs. *Zahnmedizinische Fachangestellte* [Dentist assistant vs. Certified dental assistant]; *Müller* vs. *Verfahrensmechaniker in der Getreide- und Futtermittelwirtschaft* [Miller vs. Process engineer in the grain and cattle feed industry]) resulted in different evaluations of the job in terms of the image and activities that were associated with it (Krewerth & Ulrich, 2004. pp. 105, 107).

Secondly, eye movement research found that a job title is the element that makes readers decide to move on to another job ad on a page with job ads (De Witte, 1989, p. 212), so the use of English in a job title has an impact before the rest of the ad is read, and, in fact, determines whether people decide to read the remainder of the ad.

A third indication of the importance of job titles in job advertisements is provided by a survey among Belgian potential applicants. When they were asked to indicate the importance of nine job ad elements, the job title combined with the location of the job was one of the elements they found most important, along with job requirements and the name of the organisation (De Witte, 1989, p. 211; De Witte & Vermeylen, 1986, pp. 14-15).

Finally, the importance of job titles is indicated by their use in Internet recruiting. When potential applicants search for vacancies on Internet job sites, the information displayed first usually consists of the job title, the name of the organisation, and the location (e.g. www.monsterboard.nl, www.stepstone.nl, www.vkbanen.nl, www.yer.nl). On the basis of this information, in which the job title is the only clue as to

the nature of the vacancy, applicants can decide to click through to the full job advertisement.

For these reasons, it is important not just to study the effects of the use of English instead of Dutch in job titles in job ads, but also to study these effects in job titles from job ads aimed at Dutch people *in isolation*, i.e. apart from the job ads in which they occur.

4.4.2 Aspects of the effects of the use of English in job titles that need to be studied

In keeping with the theoretical model of the use of English in job advertising in the Netherlands, the aspects that experimental research of the effects of English in job titles from job ads should focus on are similar to those for full job ads, but with adaptations to make them realistically applicable to job titles. In the previous section, it was reasoned that research for full job ads should investigate the impact of the use of English on attitude towards the ad, comprehension, and recruiting outcomes (attitude towards the job advertised, attitudes towards the organisation advertising it, and job pursuit intentions). In research into the effects of the use of English in job titles, an investigation of attitude towards the job ad would be unrealistic, since respondents do not see a job ad, and therefore this was changed to attitude towards the job title. As for recruiting outcomes, an investigation of attitude towards the organisation advertising the vacancy would also be inappropriate, since respondents do not have any information about the organisation when they only evaluate a job title. Similarly, an investigation of job pursuit intentions would be unsuitable, since such intentions would not be based on a job title alone. This means that experimental studies of the effects of English instead of Dutch in job titles should focus on:

- attitude towards the job title;
- comprehensibility of the job title;
- attitude towards the job referred to by the job title.

Indications that the use of English may indeed affect these aspects of people's response to job titles are provided by the attitudes expressed in incidental observations that writers have made about the use of English in

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job titles in the Netherlands and in other EFL countries, both in job advertising (see Chapter 3) and in general. To demonstrate this, and to provide specific topics for the research questions that relate to these aspects, the observations about English job titles in job ads will be briefly recapitulated, and new observations about English job titles that have not been made specifically in relation to job advertising will be added. The following four topics will be discussed: attitudes towards English job titles; the comprehensibility of English job titles; attitudes towards jobs with English job titles; associations with English and Dutch words in job titles.

Attitudes towards English job titles

Both negative and positive attitudes towards English job titles are in evidence in writers' comments about this matter. On the negative side, as we have seen in Chapter 3.3.6, Taavitsainen and Pahta (2003, p. 8) describe the use of an English job title in a job ad which is otherwise in Finnish or in German as "odd", the Dutch equivalent of which, "raar", is also the epithet Peereboom (1991, p. 7) applies to describe English job titles as used in the Netherlands, both in job ads and more generally. Speaking about job titles generally and not specifically in job ads, De Koning (1989, p. 218) suggests that the use of English instead of Dutch job titles is a case of "linguistic poverty" ("taalarmoede"). On the positive side, as was discussed in Chapter 3.2.5, Seitz (2008, p. 11) suggests that German organisations prefer using English instead of German job titles in their job ads "because they sound better and more interesting". These comments indicate that naturalness and attractiveness should be included among the aspects of attitudes towards the job title that are to be investigated.

Comprehensibility of English job titles

Negative views have also been found concerning the comprehensibility of English job titles. Comments expressing that such titles do not clearly indicate what the jobs involved have been cited in Chapter 3.3.1 with respect to Dutch as well as Finnish and German job advertisements (Jansen, 2006;

Seitz, 2008; Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2003). These comments underline that the clarity of English job titles is a live issue.

Attitudes towards jobs with English job titles

The use of English in job titles in EFL countries has been claimed to affect attitude to the job in a number of respects. The writers' comments relate to the effect of an English title on the job's perceived prestige and attractiveness, international nature, and gender orientation.

As was indicated in Chapter 3.2.1, a number of authors have stated that the use of English, instead of a local language (such as Dutch, Swedish or German), in job titles in job ads may give a position more prestige and status (Peereboom, 1991; Seitz, 2008; Tiggeler & Doeve, n.d.), and may make a job sound more attractive and challenging (Larson, 1990; Watts, 2002). Without referring to job ads, De Koning (1989, p. 218) similarly observes that the use of English instead of Dutch job titles in the Netherlands may be motivated by a desire for status (see also Van der Sijs, 1996, p. 26; Wagenaar, 2002, pp. 26-27). At the same time, as was also pointed out in Chapter 3.2.2, the use of an English job title has been interpreted as giving a job more status than it actually has (see Peereboom; Tiggeler & Doeve), which may make it *less* attractive. The prestige and attractiveness of jobs referred to by English instead of Dutch titles may, therefore, be taken as useful indicators of people's attitude to the job.

Another argument that was cited in Chapter 3.3.3 for the use of English in job titles in job ads in EFL countries is the need to create consistency in terms for jobs in branches of multinational companies in various countries (Larson, 1990). International use has also been claimed as a reason for the use of English job titles outside job ads. De Koning (1989) points out that such titles are said to be necessary because the holders of these titles operate internationally, for instance in meetings with members of the same multinational company from different countries (see also Seitz, 2008, p. 42). In terms of effect, it has been suggested that the use of an English job title may add international lustre ("*internationale sjeu*") to an organisation (Tiggeler & Doeve, n.d., pp. 21-22). Thus, an English title is claimed to either refer to a job with an international nature, if only because its holder works in an international organisation, or to *suggest* that a job has

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an international side to it. Since a more international job may be more attractive to some people, it would, therefore, be interesting to investigate whether the use of an English as opposed to a Dutch job title affects people's beliefs about the international nature of the job.

An argument that has been advanced for the use of English job titles in job ads specifically in a Dutch context is that English job titles may be considered to be gender neutral, since English titles usually have no special female form, i.e. one which is distinct from a male form (see De Caluwe & Van Santen, 2001; Gerritsen, 2001, 2002 as discussed in Chapter 3.3.2). In contrast, Dutch job titles often – but not always – have specific female forms, i.e. forms with feminine endings (see Gerritsen, 2001, pp. 104-105; Gerritsen, 2002, pp. 84-89), which may mean that forms without such possible feminine endings are seen as referring exclusively to men. Using English job titles in Dutch job advertisements would therefore be a way of avoiding gender bias, and making clear that both men and women could apply for the job that is advertised. As Gerritsen (2001, p. 110; 2002, p. 105) points out, it is not certain whether such gender-neutral terms are indeed perceived to refer equally to men and women. Since this has possible repercussions for the degree to which job seekers feel that men and women are equally welcome to apply, it should be investigated whether there are differences in Dutch people's impressions of the gender orientation of jobs with English as opposed to Dutch job titles.

Associations with English and Dutch words in job titles

Luna and Peracchio (2002a) point out that translation-equivalent advertising messages, and translation-equivalent parts of such messages (passages, words), may have a different meaning for consumers when they read them in their first language than when they do so in their second language. They base this assertion on a psycholinguistic model of the way bilinguals process words in their two languages, the so-called Conceptual Feature Model (De Groot, 1992b; Kroll & De Groot, 1997; Van Hell & De Groot, 1998), which is a further specification of the Revised Hierarchical Model (Dufour & Kroll, 1995; Kroll & De Groot, 1997; see also Smith, 1997).

As was pointed out in Chapter 1.3, according to the Revised Hierarchical Model, the form of words and their conceptual meanings are

represented at different levels in the memory of speakers, the lexical level and the conceptual level, respectively. At the lexical level, there are separate representations for a bilingual speaker's two languages, but at the conceptual level there is one unitary system, with links to the word forms in the two languages. De Groot's (1992b) Conceptual Feature Model (CFM) further specifies the links between word forms and concepts in bilingual memory. The basic idea behind the CFM is that translation-equivalent L1 and L2 words may share certain conceptual aspects, but that other aspects of meaning may be unique to either the L1 word or the L2 word. This idea is based on studies which found that concrete words were translated faster than abstract words, and that cognates were translated faster than non-cognates (e.g. De Groot, 1992a; for an overview of such studies, see Kroll & De Groot, 1997, p. 187; Van Hell & De Groot, 1998, pp. 193-194). In these studies, concrete and abstract words were operationalised as words with high vs. low "imageability", respectively (De Groot, 1992a, p. 1002), and cognates were defined as "translation pairs in which the words are similar in sound and spelling" (Van Hell & De Groot, p. 193). Examples of concrete words are the English/Dutch translation pairs *tree/boom* and *apple/appel*, while the English/Dutch translation pairs *duty/plicht* and *quality/kwaliteit* are examples of abstract words (Van Hell & De Groot, p. 210). Examples of cognates are the English/Dutch translation pairs *insight/inzicht* and *shoulder/schouder*, while *favour/gunst* and *bottle/fles* are examples of non-cognate English/Dutch translation pairs (Van Hell & De Groot, p. 210). Within a model of conceptual representations where each word is linked to a collection of nodes, each standing for one aspect of meaning, or conceptual feature (the so-called "distributed" view of meaning representation; Van Hell & De Groot, p. 194), the CFM takes the differences in translation times found between translation pairs belonging to these different categories as evidence that translation-equivalent concrete words and cognates share more conceptual features than do translation-equivalent abstract words and non-cognates. Although it is also possible for the CFM to account for the differences in translation times between abstract and concrete words, and between cognates and non-cognates, in terms of a model where each word form is linked to one conceptual node with a specific set of conceptual features (the so-called "localist" view of meaning representation; Van Hell &

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De Groot, p. 194), Van Hell and De Groot (p. 208) argue that the distributed view is more “parsimonious”.

Figure 4.1 illustrates the distributed CFM with a hypothetical example, taken from Luna and Peracchio 2002a, p. 460), in which the translation-equivalent English and Spanish words *friend* and *amigo* share the conceptual features ‘honesty’ and ‘toys’, while the conceptual features ‘McDonalds’, ‘cycle’ and ‘love’ are unique to the English word and the conceptual features ‘play’, ‘smile’ and ‘male’ are unique to the Spanish word.

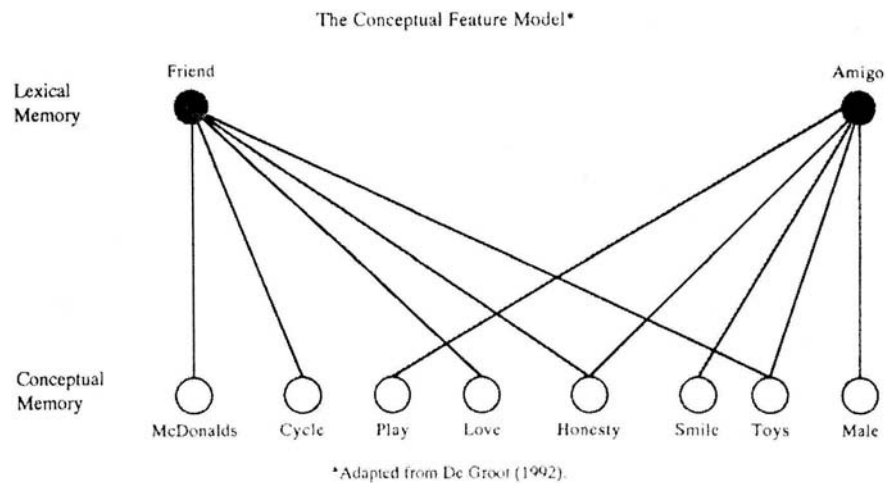


Figure 4.1. A hypothetical example of conceptual features shared by and unique to the English word ‘friend’ and its Spanish translation equivalent ‘amigo’ (from Luna and Peracchio, 2002a, p. 460)

In accordance with the CFM, a number of studies have found that respondents have both identical and different associations with translation-equivalent L1 and L2 words (Kolars, 1963; Taylor, 1976; Van Hell & De Groot, 1998), the assumption being that a word association task reflects conceptual processing (Van Hell & De Groot, p. 195), and thus reveals the conceptual features linked to a particular word. Concrete translation pairs and cognate translation pairs were found to share more associations than did abstract and non-cognate translation pairs (Taylor; Van Hell & De Groot). As an explanation for the larger similarity between the associations with translation-equivalent cognates than non-cognates, Van Hell and De Groot suggest that the similarity in form between cognates may lead

language learners to “simply map the to-be-learned L2 word onto the existing conceptual representation of its translation in the native language” (p. 194), whereas for non-cognates the dissimilarity in form does not invite them to do so. One possible explanation which Van Hell and De Groot offer for the larger overlap in associations between translation pairs of concrete words than between translation pairs of abstract words is that the meaning of abstract words may depend more on their linguistic context, and is therefore more likely to be language specific (p. 194). In contrast, as Kroll and De Groot (1997. p. 187) point out, “[b]ecause concrete words refer to perceptual referents that are, for the most part, shared across languages, they will access similar or identical subsets of conceptual features, regardless of the language in which they are presented”. Van Hell and De Groot compared respondents’ associations with translation-equivalent L1 and L2 words to the associations they gave at different times for the same word in the same language. They found that, although overlap between the associations with the same words in the same language was relatively small, it was larger than that between translation pairs, which provides some evidence that associations with words may be language specific.

In a number of studies, Luna and Peracchio have tested whether (parts of) advertising messages in different languages (Spanish and English) evoke different associations in respondents, and therefore have a (partly) different meaning for them, as Luna and Peracchio (2002a) predict on the basis of the CFM, pointing out that differences in conceptual features linked to translation-equivalent words in different languages “could be due to the different contexts in which the words are learned and normally used”(p. 260). Luna (1999) tested a small number of words (eight) from advertisements, and found that there was less overlap in associations between Spanish and English translation equivalents than there was in associations produced with words in the same language in different sessions, with concrete and cognate words resulting in greater overlap than abstract and non-cognate words. Luna, et al. (2003) found that respondents’ thoughts about (associations with) websites in their first language were more positive than those about websites in their second language, and that the valence of these associations predicted the attitude to the site and the attitude to the product promoted on the site (even though they did not study this as an effect of the language choice by itself, but as an effect of language

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choice in combination with the congruence between pictures and text on the website). Finally, Luna and Peracchio (2005b) found differences in the number of negative and positive associations between salient translation-equivalent L1 and L2 words in slogans, which influenced the evaluations of the product being promoted, “such that if the language a slogan switches to possesses positive (negative) associations, consumers engage in positive (negative) elaboration, resulting in higher (lower) evaluations” (p. 43).

While Luna and Peracchio and their colleagues, have tested differences in associations between translation-equivalent L1 and L2 words in product advertising, showing it to affect attitudes to the product, no such research has been carried out with respect to job advertisements. On the basis of their research and the CFM, it may seem likely that English words in job ads evoke different associations for Dutch respondents than do Dutch translation equivalents. Establishing whether there differences or no differences in associations between English and Dutch translation-equivalent words from job ads may explain possible differences in attitudes to job ads with and without English words, and to the jobs featured in such ads, or the possible lack of such differences. Differences in associations between single English or Dutch words and phrases may be lost when they are elicited in a job ad as a whole. Testing associations with English versus Dutch job titles is a way of avoiding that problem. It is ecologically valid to test associations with job titles separately, since, as was argued at the beginning of Section 4.4 and in Section 4.4.1, job titles are parts of a job ad that are salient and are encountered in isolation.

4.4.3 Existing empirical research into the impact of English job titles on respondents in EFL countries

As far as is known, there has been only one empirical study that has specifically investigated the impact of English job titles on respondents in an EFL country, a written survey in which around 2400 youngsters in Germany (all of whom were registered with the national employment bureau, the *Bundesagentur für Arbeit*, as applicants for training places) were asked about their attitude to English as opposed to German occupational titles (Ulrich, Eberhard, & Krewerth, 2004). Only 18% of the female respondents and only 9% of the male respondents indicated that they often found English job titles

more attractive than German ones. The study sums up the arguments mentioned by the youngsters against the use of English job titles in Germany in four points: it is a threat to German ("die deutsche Sprache verkümmert" ["the German language is withering"]); English job titles are confusing; older people in particular cannot "place" ("einordnen") these foreign-language titles; English job titles sound pompous, flattering and therefore they are sooner felt to be trivial and silly ("die in Englisch formulierten Bezeichnungen klingen wichtig-tuerisch, anbietend und wirken deshalb eher platt und albern"). Thus, in terms of the aspects of the effects of English job titles distinguished above, the survey found that attitudes to English job titles were negative, and that the comprehensibility of these titles was also evaluated negatively.

When these survey findings are considered, it should be borne in mind that they were based on only one specific survey question, and on an open-ended question at the end of the survey in which the respondents were asked to indicate what they felt had not been covered especially in connection with finding and applying for training places and with occupational titles.¹¹ The specific question asking respondents to compare the attractiveness of English and German job titles was:

Ich finde englische, internationale Berufsbezeichnungen oft attraktiver als die deutschen Namen (z.B. „Sales Manager“ anstelle von „Verkaufsleiter“).

[I find English, international job titles often more attractive than the German names (for example "Sales Manager" instead of "Verkaufsleiter").]

The survey, therefore, explicitly measured only one aspect (attractiveness) of attitude towards the job title, and did not explicitly investigate the other aspects discussed above, comprehensibility of the job title, and attitude towards the job covered by the job title. Since this survey was conducted in Germany, empirical research is still required to determine the effects of the use of English in job titles on Dutch people.

¹¹ I wish to thank Joachim Gerd Ulrich for kindly supplying me with the unpublished written questionnaire whose findings are reported in Ulrich et al. (2004).

4.4.4 Research questions for the job title experiment

This section has argued that it is important to study the effects of English as opposed to Dutch job titles separately from the job ads in which these job titles occur. It has further argued that such investigations should examine the impact of the use of English instead of Dutch on attitude towards the job title, comprehensibility of the job title, and attitude towards the job referred to by the job title. Relevant aspects of attitude towards the job title that have been identified are naturalness and attractiveness. Relevant aspects of attitude towards the job referred to by the job title that have been identified are attitude to the job in terms of prestige and attractiveness, evaluation of the international nature of the job, and evaluation of the gender orientation of the job. As was pointed out earlier, attitudes to the job are seen as a recruiting outcome (Chapman et al., 2005, p. 929; see Chapter 1.2). In addition, it was argued that it was important to determine to what extent English and Dutch job titles evoke different associations. No experimental research has yet determined the effects of the use of English instead of Dutch job titles on any of these aspects. The research questions, therefore, are the following:

- RQ 7: To what extent are there differences in the effect on Dutch respondents of the use of English or Dutch in job titles from job advertisements aimed at Dutch people in terms of *attitude to the job titles* (attractiveness, naturalness), *comprehensibility of the job title*, and *recruiting outcomes* (attitude to the job referred to by the title: prestige and attractiveness; evaluation of its international nature; evaluation of its gender orientation)?
- RQ 8: To what extent do English words from job titles evoke the same or different associations in Dutch respondents as Dutch translation equivalents?

In terms of the model of the use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands discussed in Chapter 1.3, these questions relate to the effects of English on the *receivers* of the job ad message. They cover the effects of English on a number of elements identified in the model, i.e. *attitude to the*

job ad message, in this case part of the job ad message, i.e. the job title; *comprehension* of the job ad message, in this case again the job title; *attitudes to the job* advertised. Most of the effects measured are connected with *symbolic* reasons for the use of English, as discussed in the model, i.e. with suggesting qualities and characteristics that were not objectively observable in the advertisement or the real world outside the advertisement. One of the effects measured, however, is *non-symbolic*, because it is not to do with suggesting qualities and characteristics but with comprehension. The associations evoked by English and Dutch words may correspond with characteristics and qualities that are objectively observable in reality, or not. They can, therefore, be labelled as *both symbolic and non-symbolic effects*.

4.5 What does the current study aim to add to existing insights on English in job ads in the Netherlands?

The current study aims to add to existing insights on the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands and its effects in a number of ways.

The first aim relates to the *reasons* given for this use of English. So far the reasons cited in the literature have been based on the writers' impressions and analysis of a number of examples (Chapter 3). The present study will extend our knowledge of the motivation for the use of English in this area by presenting the reasons given by makers of job ads in the Netherlands, gathered in interviews (Chapter 5). In terms of the model in Chapter 1.3, it investigates the *sender's* perspective on the use of English.

The second aim of the current study relates to the *actual use* of English in job ads. Thus far, there has only been one published corpus analysis, Gerritsen (2001, 2002), which focussed on the use of one type of English nouns in one particular part of job ads, English gender-neutral terms in job ad headings. The present study will present the results of corpus analyses of full job ads, to establish what factors determine the use of English, based on a range of possible reasons mentioned in the literature on English in product and recruitment advertising in EFL countries (Chapter 6). In terms of the model, it investigates how English manifests itself in the *job ad message*.

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The third aim of the current study relates to the *effects* of the use of English in job ads on their target groups, to determine whether claims about these effects in the literature are valid. It will add to the findings of Renkema et al. (2001), by studying the effect of the use of English or Dutch on *job-pursuit intentions*, by taking into account *comprehension* of the English or Dutch used in these ads, by specifically considering the effect of English or Dutch in *job titles* from job advertisements, and by studying the *associations* evoked by the use of English or Dutch in job advertisements (Chapter 7). In terms of the model, it investigates the effect of English on the *receivers* of a job ad message.

Chapter 5 - The senders' perspective on using English or Dutch. Interviews with makers of job advertisements in the Netherlands

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an exploratory investigation of the senders' perspective on the use of English or Dutch in job ads in the Netherlands. The rationale for carrying out this investigation, as was argued in Chapter 4.1, is that, although scholars and other writers have made suggestions as to why English is used in job and product advertising in EFL countries, and although interviews with makers of product ads about this subject have been reported, it has not been researched what makers of job ads have in mind when using or avoiding English in the ads they place.

The aim of this chapter is to answer the following research questions and sub-questions, as formulated and motivated in Chapter 4.1:

- RQ 1: To what extent do makers of job ads consciously decide to use English or Dutch in the ads they place?
- RQ 2: How do makers of job ads view the comprehensibility of the English or Dutch they use, and to what extent do they test this?
- RQ 2a: To what extent do makers of job ads consider the comprehension of the English or Dutch they use to be a problem for the ads' target groups?
- RQ 2b: In what ways have the makers of job ads tested whether the English or Dutch they use is a problem for the ads' target groups?
- RQ 3: What reasons do job ad makers give for using or not using English in job ads, and how do these reasons relate to the model described in Chapter 1.3?
- RQ 3a: To what extent do job ad makers give symbolic reasons for using or not using English?

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- RQ 3b: To what extent do job ad makers give non-symbolic reasons for using or not using English?
- RQ 3c: To which of the entities described in the model (sender, message, receiver, context) do the symbolic reasons given by the job ad makers relate?
- RQ 3d: To which of the entities described in the model (sender, message, receiver, context) do the non-symbolic reasons given by the job ad makers relate?

If the interviews yield information that is not included in the model proposed in Chapter 1.3, this will be used to suggest emendations to the model.

Because the views of this group of professionals on their language choices have not previously been investigated, the current research took a qualitative approach. Qualitative research is particularly appropriate, since it is suitable for uncovering people's "perceptions, assumptions, prejudgments, presuppositions" (Van Manen, 1977, as cited in Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 10; cf. Patton, 1990, p. 278). As Idler, Hudson and Leventhal (1999, p. 459) put it, "[t]he virtues of qualitative approaches, their engagement with typical life situations, their naturalism, their sensitivity to the vernacular participants use, and their ability to capture the perceptions of respondents 'from the inside' make them especially suitable for describing unknown terrain". Another reason for exploring this unknown territory through a qualitative research method, more specifically interviews involving open-ended questions, was that such a method is more likely to lead to more in-depth and detailed information than a quantitative method such as a survey (cf. Verschuren & Doorewaard, 2007, pp. 162, 163, 172, 184). Closed questions can only confirm or disconfirm the relevance of views the researcher chooses to present to those surveyed either on the basis of the literature or of his or her own ideas. While a written survey can also include open-ended questions, oral interviews offer the interviewer the opportunity to ask the interviewees for further clarification and elaboration where necessary.

The research questions were investigated by conducting interviews with makers of job ads in the Netherlands about the ads they themselves had made, which were ads with various degrees of English, i.e. all-English

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ads, partly English ads and all-Dutch ads (for this categorisation, compare Gerritsen, 1995, p. 330; Martin, 2002, p. 385, as discussed in Chapter 4.2.1.).

After the views of the job ad makers on the various topics have been presented, the interview findings will be compared with the literature on English in job and product advertising in the Netherlands and other EFL countries, as discussed in Chapters 1, 3 and 4. The motivation for making comparisons with literature on product advertising as well as on job advertising is that, as we have seen in Chapter 1.3, the theoretical model of the use of English in job ads was developed largely on the basis of literature about English in product ads. If views on the use of English given in literature on product ads also occur in the interviews, this supports the original assumption that it was justified to base the model on ideas and empirical findings relating to English in product advertising. At the same time, it will be investigated whether the views that are mentioned in the interviews and are not found in the literature on product ads are specific to the genre of job advertisements. Finally, the implications of the interview findings for the model will be discussed and, where necessary, adaptations to the model will be suggested.

The method used in this study is described in Section 5.2. The results concerning RQ 1 are presented in Section 5.3.1 ('Consciousness of decisions to use English or Dutch in job ads'). The findings pertaining to RQ 2 are reported in Section 5.3.2 ('Interviewees' views on the comprehensibility of English or Dutch for target groups'). The results relating to RQ 3 are presented in Section 5.3.3 ('Reasons given for language use'). The conclusions of the study, including comparisons with the literature and implications for the model, the limitations of the study and suggestions for further research are discussed in Section 5.4.

5.2 Method

5.2.1 Overview

Twenty-seven interviews were held with makers of job ads which had appeared in various Dutch national and local/regional newspapers in the summer of 2006. Ten interviews were carried out with makers of all-English

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job ads, nine with makers of partly English ads and eight with makers of all-Dutch ads. Among other things, they were asked whether they had consciously decided to use English or Dutch in the particular ad they had published, whether they thought its comprehension would be problematical for the ad's target group and whether they had tested this, and why they used it. The interviews can be characterised as expert interviews, since "the interviewee is of less interest as a (whole) person than in his or her capacity of being an expert for a certain field of activity" (Flick, 1998, p. 92). The interviews were semi-structured, in that they started with an open question, followed by more structured questions "to prevent the interviewer's frame of reference being imposed on the interviewee's viewpoints" (Flick, p. 77).

5.2.2 The respondents

The interviews were conducted with makers of job advertisements taken from three Dutch national newspapers (*de Volkskrant*, *NRC Handelsblad*, and *Metro*) and three Dutch local/regional newspapers (*De Gelderlander*, *Haarlems Dagblad*, and *De Brug Nijmegen*) published between 29 April 2006 and 15 July 2006. These newspapers were selected for the following three reasons: they were a combination of national and local/regional newspapers; they had a large circulation; and the local/regional newspapers were from different parts of the country. Thus the readers could be said to represent a wide cross-section of the Dutch population in terms of geographic spread. The newspapers and their circulation figures are listed in Table 5.1.

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Table 5.1. Circulation figures of the newspapers from which the job advertisements were taken that formed the basis for the interviews

Newspaper	Circulation	Source of information
National newspapers		
<i>de Volkskrant</i>	293,995	PCM Uitgevers (2006)
<i>NRC Handelsblad</i>	251,190	PCM Uitgevers (2006)
<i>Metro</i>	560,000	Metro (n.d.)
Local/regional newspapers		
<i>De Gelderlander</i>	175,490	Wegener NieuwsMedia (n.d.)
<i>Haarlems Dagblad</i>	36,655	HDC Media (2008)
<i>De Brug Nijmegen</i>	119,380	Wegener Huis-aan-huisMedia (n.d.)

Two of the national dailies, *de Volkskrant* and *NRC Handelsblad*, are quality newspapers available on paid subscription or sold at kiosks and stationers, and one, *Metro*, is a free newspaper, available in buses, railway stations, trams, some supermarkets, hospitals, post offices, schools and universities among other places (Metro, n.d.). Two of the local/regional papers, *De Gelderlander* and *Haarlems Dagblad*, are daily papers available on paid subscription or sold at kiosks and stationers, and one, *De Brug Nijmegen*, is a free weekly paper, distributed door to door. *De Gelderlander* is sold in the city of Nijmegen and the surrounding area in the provinces of Gelderland, Brabant, Limburg and Utrecht, in the middle, east and south of the Netherlands (Wegener NieuwsMedia, n.d.). *Haarlems Dagblad* is sold in the city of Haarlem and the surrounding area in the provinces of North and South Holland, in the north-west of the country (HDC Media, 2008). *De Brug Nijmegen* is distributed in the city of Nijmegen and the surrounding area in the provinces of Gelderland and Limburg, in the east and south of the Netherlands (Wegener Huis-aan-huisMedia, n.d.).

The advertisements were chosen using a purposive sampling technique, in the sense that the cases were selected because they had characteristics that were theoretically relevant (Boeije, 2005, p. 50; for specific examples of this technique, also called purposeful sampling, see Flick, 1998, pp. 69-71; Patton, 1990, pp. 169-186). The cases, i.e. the advertisements, were selected because they fitted the three pre-determined categories, that is, all-English, partly English, and all-Dutch ads. An additional criterion was that in the partly English advertisements at least some of the key terms (e.g. job titles) could be translated into Dutch and that in the all-Dutch ads at least some of the key terms could be translated into English. Ads with such terms

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were chosen to determine what reasons other than the absence of equivalents there could be for the use of English or Dutch terms. Finally, the advertisements selected represented a variety of sectors of industry and geographical locations.

This process resulted in the selection of 16 all-English, 23 partly English and 17 all-Dutch job advertisements. The makers of these advertisements were asked by letter and (subsequently) by phone to take part in an interview. Of the makers of the all-English advertisements, five did not respond, one declined and ten agreed to take part. Of the makers of the partly English job ads, two did not respond, twelve declined to take part in the interview and nine agreed to participate. Of the makers of the all-Dutch ads, six did not respond, three declined to take part in the interview and eight agreed to participate.

In total, interviews were held with 30 job ad makers from 27 organisations. Patton (1990, p. 184) says that “[*t*]here are no rules for sample size in qualitative enquiry” [italics in the original]. Baarda, De Goede, and Teunissen (2005, p. 165), similarly, stress that the actual number of interviews is not important, but what matters is that saturation is reached. Accordingly, it was decided to stop conducting interviews when no new views on using or avoiding English were found. The eventual number of interviews, 27, was in line with the suggestion that between 25 and 30 interviews are needed to reach saturation in the information gathered (Baarda, De Goede, & Teunissen, 1995, p. 83; also cited in Korzilius & Langenberg, 1999, p. 91).

Most of the interviews were conducted with one participant who had been involved in making the advertisement. In three cases, however, an interview was held with two people who had been involved in drawing up the ad. The views of each of these three pairs will be presented as the views of one interviewee concerning the ad their organisation had placed. The makers of job ads who agreed to take part in the interviews worked in a number of capacities, as shown in Table 5.2. Twelve of the respondents worked in personnel departments of the companies for which the vacancies were advertised; seven worked for recruiting agencies; four were members of the departments where the successful applicant would work. For four respondents, placing advertisements was part of another job in the company

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for which the vacancy was advertised. All the respondents were native speakers of Dutch.

Table 5.2. Background of the interviewees

Capacity	E	P	D	Total
Members of personnel department	4	2	6	12
Recruiters/intermediaries	5	2	0	7
Members of departments where applicants would work	1	3	0	4
Employees for whom involvement in job ads was part of other job	0	2	2	4
Total	10	9	8	27

Note. E = makers of the all-English job ads; P = makers of the partly English job ads; D = makers of the all-Dutch job ads.

The organisations for which the vacancies were advertised belonged to various sectors of industry (see Appendix 5.1). The sectors ranged from agriculture to transport, with financial institutions, healthcare/social care and industries occurring most frequently. Seven job advertisements were placed by recruitment agencies on behalf of organisations from these sectors.

The interviews took place in locations throughout the Netherlands: Alkmaar, Amsterdam, Beetsterzwaag, Best, Breda, Delft, Duiven, Gorinchem, Heemstede, Heerlen, Nijmegen, Oldenzaal, Sassenheim, The Hague, Tiel, Tilburg, Uden, Utrecht, and Wageningen.

5.2.3 Questions asked

The following questions were asked to gather information relating to the three research questions for the interview study:

In relation to RQ 1, the respondents were asked whether it had been a conscious decision to use an all-English, all-Dutch or partly English ad (see Appendix 5.2, Section 2, question 1)

In relation to RQ 2, the respondents were asked whether they thought the language in the ads they placed would be a problem for the ad's target group, and whether they had tested this (see Appendix 5.2, Section 2, question 5).

In relation to RQ 3, a number of questions were asked to probe respondents' motivation for using English or Dutch in the job

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advertisements for which they were responsible. These questions were of four different kinds. First, there was an open-ended question in which they were asked to give their reasons for using an all-English job ad, for using English in a largely Dutch job ad, or for using an all-Dutch ad (see Appendix 5.2, Section 2, question 3). Secondly, interviewees were presented with reasons for the use of English or Dutch from the literature which they had not spontaneously mentioned themselves, and they were asked to say whether these reasons were applicable to their advertisements (see Appendix 5.2, Section 2, question 4). Thirdly, for the partly English and all-Dutch ads, respondents were presented with translation-equivalent translations of key phrases (e.g. job titles) and asked why these alternatives had not been chosen (inspired by discourse-based interview techniques; cf. Odell, Goswami, & Herrington, 1983) (see Appendix 5.2, Section 2, question 9). Finally, they were asked to suggest reasons for the use of all-English ads and partly English ads in the Netherlands in general (see Appendix 5.2, Section 3). After all the reasons mentioned for language use in job advertisements had been analysed, it was decided to limit the presentation of reasons to those that been given in answer to the open-ended questions about the advertisement the selection of the interviewees had been based on, i.e., the questions as to why English or Dutch was used in the ad, and why a particular phrase was used instead of its alternative in the other language (see Appendix 5.2, Section 2, questions 3 and 9). This decision was informed by a number of considerations. The advertisements the interviews were based on are those for which the interviewees' comments were likely to be most concrete, least speculative, and most directly informed by respondents' own recent experiences. The reasons interviewees gave in answer to open-ended questions came from the respondents themselves and therefore most authentically indicated what motivated their use of English or Dutch. They, therefore, most directly represent the participants' own perspective, in line with what has been claimed to be one of the features of qualitative research in general (see e.g. Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 10; Flick, 1998, p. 6).

In order to ensure that the content and structure of all the interviews was comparable, topic lists were used. These topic lists (and the order of the questions) were informed by the guidelines presented in Baarda et al. (2005, pp. 250-256). For the topic lists used, see Appendix 5.2.

5.2.4 Procedure

Before the interviews took place, two pilot interviews were conducted to practise the procedure and to receive interviewee feedback in order to make amendments to the interview structure and questions.

The actual interviews were carried out face to face at the respondents' places of work, with one exception. At the interviewee's request, one interview was conducted over the telephone to save time. At the beginning of the interview, the respondents were told that all results would be presented anonymously so their observations would not be attributable to any specific organisation or person. During the interview, the researcher made notes about the respondent's remarks on a print-out of the topic list. In the face-to-face interviews, the researcher showed the respondent the job ad he or she had made, and referred to it when asking questions. In keeping with the recommendations in Patton (1990, pp. 347-349) and Weiss (1994, pp. 54-55), all interviews were recorded and transcribed (with two exceptions, where the tape recorder malfunctioned and the researcher had to resort to notes exclusively). Interviews lasted between half an hour and an hour.

After conducting an interview, the researcher noted down slight changes that were necessary in the order and phrasing of some of the questions, as well as particularly striking remarks made by the interviewees.

5.2.5 Method of analysis

The method used in analysing the interview data followed the analytic moves that are common in qualitative research generally (see e.g. Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 9). The remarks made by the interviewees were labelled, patterns were identified in them, and the findings were compared with the theory and the literature on the subject. This process is described in more detail below.

The reasons given in response to the open-ended interview questions (why English or Dutch was used in the ad and why a particular phrase was used instead of its alternative in the other language; Appendix 5.2, Section 2, questions 3 and 9) were highlighted in the transcripts, thus eliminating any irrelevant information. Next, the answers were coded in the

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margin of the transcripts with labels linking them to the reasons given in the literature (e.g. 'status' or 'international target group'). A few new categories were added for answers which did not seem to fit the reasons listed in the literature. Relevant quotations from the individual interviews were placed into a cross-case display in the categories that they belonged to (cf. Miles & Huberman, 1994, pp. 172-185). Most of these categories corresponded with the reasons presented to the interviewees for comment in closed questions later in the interviews (Appendix 5.2, Section 2, question 4). These response categories were grouped into overarching categories ('symbolic', 'non-symbolic') and subdivided into the entity that they related to ('organisation', 'job', 'text', 'word', 'target group', 'sector', 'Dutch society'). The division between symbolic and non-symbolic reasons and the various entities to which they related were based on the theoretical model in Chapter 1.3. The entity 'organisation' was categorised under 'sender'. The entities 'job', 'text' and 'word' were categorised under 'message'. The entity 'target group' was categorised under 'receiver'. The entities 'sector' and 'Dutch society' were categorised under 'context'. In a number of cases, reasons could be related to more than one entity. In the analysis, the categorisation was based on the entity the respondents focussed on in their considerations when formulating their reasons for using English or Dutch. For instance, the use of English terms to make the text of the advertisement more attractive could have been categorised either under *text*, since the text of the advertisement is the entity that is made more attractive by the use of English, or under *target group*, since it is for them that the text is supposed to become more attractive. Because the respondent who gave this reason explicitly referred to the advertisement, and not to the target group, this reason was categorised under *text*. To give another example, reasons categorised under *word* could have been categorised under *text*, because, obviously, words are part of a text. However, the decisive factor in the categorisation was whether the respondent explicitly mentioned the reason as applying to the text of the advertisement as a whole, or as applying to individual words or combinations of individual words.

The answers to the group of questions relating to comprehensibility (whether English or Dutch was thought to be comprehensible for the target group and whether this had been tested; Appendix 5.2, Section 2, question 5), were categorised by response (yes or no). The answers to the questions as

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to whether a language choice had been a conscious one (Appendix 5.2, Section 2, question 1) were similarly categorised by response (yes or no).

The analysis included the views of single respondents. As Boeije (2005, p. 132) points out, one of the aims of qualitative research is to describe the "bandwidth" of a phenomenon by showing cases that are less frequent or deviant. In view of the low numbers of respondents and the fact that they were not a random but a purposely selected sample, the fact that a certain reason was mentioned by only one respondent was not considered a valid criterion for excluding this particular reason from the analysis. It was explicitly checked whether a respondent was a 'deviant case', in the sense that he or she expressed a view that ran counter to a more general trend in the data (see e.g. Flick, 1998, p. 69; Seale, 1999, pp. 73-86; Wester, 1991, p. 36). For instance, one interviewee said that he had placed an all-English job ad to reach Dutch and Flemish people, while all the other interviewees who mentioned the intended target groups of their all-English job ad remarked that they had placed this ad to reach an international non-Dutch-speaking target group.

During the categorisation of the answers, an iterative reflective approach was followed (cf. Baarda et al., 2005, p. 324). After the original categorisation of the interviewees' remarks, it was checked whether the remarks indeed fitted the heading under which they had been placed. Where necessary, the original transcript of the interview was consulted again. In a number of cases, this resulted in a different categorisation than had originally been made.

As a check of the validity of the categorisation of the answers, the researcher grouped a number of quotes into categories together with two other researchers in two separate sessions. A large degree of agreement was found with regard to the categorisation.

In order to achieve more intersubjectivity, a third researcher was approached to check the validity of the overarching categories. Together with this third person, the researcher grouped the original categories into overarching categories for one of the groups of advertisements. It turned out that the researchers fully agreed on the grouping of categories in the overarching categories.

The validity of the analysis was also checked through "peer debriefing" (see e.g. Baarda et al., 2005, p. 194; Boeije, 2005, p. 152; Lincoln &

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Guba, 1985, pp. 308-309; Wester, 1991, p. 186). Three fellow researchers with knowledge of the field of language use in advertising read a preliminary version of the text reporting on the interview outcomes. They checked for clarity and logic. In a number of cases, they asked for clarification regarding the categorizations of reasons and they were satisfied with the explanations given.

Final categorisation of reasons for language use

The grouping of reasons for language choices resulted in a number of categories and overarching categories. These are described below.

Symbolic reasons

In line with the definition in Chapter 1.3.6, symbolic reasons were defined as motivations for language use that were to do with suggesting qualities or characteristics that were not objectively observable. This overarching category contained a number of sub-categories, which related to the different entities to which the symbolic reasons were applied:

- organisation (e.g. the use of English was said to indicate that the organisation was international);
- job (e.g. the use of English terms was said to indicate that the job had more status than when Dutch terms would have been used);
- text (e.g. the use of English terms was felt to make the text of the advertisement as a whole more attractive);
- word (e.g. an English word was said to sound better than its Dutch counterpart);
- target group (e.g. the use of an all-English ad was said to express that the target group should have good English communication skills);
- sector (e.g. the use of Dutch was said to fit in with the ethical nature of the sector to which the organisation belongs);
- Dutch society (e.g. the use of English terms was said to be motivated by Dutch people's lack of pride in the Dutch language).

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Non-symbolic reasons

In line with the definition in Chapter 1.3.6, non-symbolic reasons were defined as motivations for language use which referred to aspects that would be objectively observable in the advertisement or the real world outside the advertisement. Just like the symbolic reasons, this overarching category contained a number of sub-categories, relating to the different entities to which the symbolic reasons were applied:

- organisation (e.g. English words were said to be used in the advertisement because they were commonly used in the organisation, or because the organisation operated internationally);
- job (e.g. an all-English job advertisement was said to be used because the job advertised involved international contacts and work abroad);
- text (e.g. an all-Dutch ad was said to be used because it was clear and easy to understand);
- word (e.g. an English word was said to have no Dutch equivalents or was said to be shorter than its Dutch equivalent);
- target group (e.g. an all-English ad was said to be used to reach non-Dutch speakers);
- sector (e.g. English words were said to be used because they were common in the sector to which the organisation belongs);
- society (e.g. English words were said to be used because they were common in the Netherlands in general).

Dominant reasons

In order to indicate the relative importance of the various reasons given by the interviewees for placing a particular type of ad, certain reasons were categorised as 'dominant'. The notion 'dominant reason' was inspired by the notion "dominant theme", which is often used in qualitative research. While many studies do not explain their criteria for calling particular themes dominant, the current study followed authors who formulate quantitative criteria for deciding whether a particular theme is dominant or not (cf. Kovach, 1995, p. 113; Onwuegbuzie, 2003, p. 396). Following Lewis,

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Schmisseur, Stephens, and Weir (2006, p. 116), the current study defined a dominant reason as “recurring” in the data. More specifically, a reason was considered dominant if it met at least one of the following two criteria. The first criterion was that a particular reason was mentioned by a majority of respondents. Although this study is a qualitative one, it can be argued that reasons mentioned by a majority are more important than others (cf. Sandelowski, 2001, p. 231). The second criterion was that a reason related not to one but to more than one entity. If this was the case, a certain factor manifested itself as a motivation not just once but several times, and on this account it was considered more important. For instance, internationality was considered a dominant reason for placing all-English ads, since respondents said they placed such ads because the *organisation* and the *target group* were international, and to indicate the international nature of the *organisation* and the *job*.

5.3 Results

The results are presented by type of advertisement, i.e. all-English, partly English and all-Dutch. For each of these ad types, the following topics are dealt with:

- To what extent was the use of English or Dutch a conscious decision? (RQ 1)
- To what extent do the interviewees consider the English or Dutch they used to be comprehensible to the target group and how did they test this? (RQ 2)
- What symbolic and non-symbolic reasons do the interviewees give for using English or Dutch in their job ads, and how do these reasons relate to the model described in Chapter 1.3? (RQ 3)

The reasons for the use of English (or Dutch) are presented in accordance with the categorisation outlined in the method of analysis (Section 5.2.5). The basic division is that between the overarching categories *symbolic* and *non-symbolic*. Within these two overarching categories, the reasons are presented by the entity to which they refer, i.e. *organisation*, *job*,

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text, words, target group, sector, and Dutch society. The order in which these entities are discussed follows the theoretical model presented in Chapter 1.3:

- the sender of the advertising message: the organisation with the vacancy;
- what is advertised in the message: the job;
- aspects of the message itself: the text of the advertisement as a whole and the words contained in it;
- the receiver of the message: the ad's target group;
- contextual aspects: the sector of the organisation with the vacancy, and Dutch society.

Thus, both in its distinction between symbolic and non-symbolic reasons and in its distinction between the various entities to which these can refer, the presentation of the results follows the theoretical model. After the reasons given for each individual type of ad have been presented (Sections 5.3.3.1 to 5.3.3.3), a comparison between the reasons for the three types is made (Section 5.3.3.4).

For the presentation of the results, the various views expressed by the interviewees are summarised in tables, with the exact numbers of respondents that mentioned them. This practice follows the recommendations in Boeije (2005, p. 138) and Sandelowski (2001, p. 237). In the text accompanying the tables, terms indicating indeterminate quantities, such as 'a few', 'a number' and 'a majority' are used. Their meaning in this study is defined as follows, in what Sandelowski (2001, p. 237) calls "operationally defined verbal counting". The term 'a few' is used to refer to two respondents; 'a number' or 'some' refers to more than two respondents, but not a majority; 'a/the majority' refers to six or more respondents in the case of the all-English ads, and five or more respondents in the case of the partly English ads and the all-Dutch ads. When only one respondent is involved, this is always explicitly indicated. Although traditionally qualitative research is seen as research that does not involve counting (cf. Seale, 1999, p. 119), the reason for giving this numerical information is that it may be informative for readers to know on how many research units a

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researcher's interpretation is based (Boeije, 2005, p. 138; see also Seale, p. 128).

In line with the recommendation in Patton (1990, p. 420) that qualitative researchers should provide "sufficient quotational data to illuminate and support" their assertions (see also Boeije, 2005, p. 133; Weiss, 1994, p. 191), quotations will be given to support and provide evidence for the analyses. In order to preserve the interviewees' anonymity, the source of a quotation will be identified with a letter and number code. In these codes, the letter E stands for an all-English ad, P for a partly English ad, and D for an all-Dutch ad, and the number refers to the particular interviewee who had placed an ad of one of these types. For a list of all the interviewee codes and a description of the interviewees to which they refer, see Appendix 5.1. For the benefit of the non-Dutch-speaking reader, the quotations are presented in English. These translations are as close as possible to the original Dutch, including the false starts and ungrammatical constructions characteristic of spoken language. In a number of cases, where there was no straightforward one-to-one translation, the original Dutch formulation is given in square brackets. This is done in the interest of transparency, to give people with knowledge of Dutch the opportunity to see what was actually said.

5.3.1 Consciousness of decisions to use English or Dutch in job ads (RQ 1)

Table 5.3 shows that in most cases interviewees said that it had been a conscious decision to place an all-English, partly English or all-Dutch job advertisement.

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Table 5.3. Number of interviewees who said that their decision to place an ad of a particular type was or was not a conscious one

	E (n = 10)	P (n = 9)	D (n = 8)
Conscious decision	8	5	6
Not conscious decision	2	2	2
No comment on consciousness of the decision	0	2	0

Note. E = makers of the all-English job ads; P = makers of the partly English job ads; D = makers of the all-Dutch job ads.

In the few cases where respondents said their use of English or Dutch had not been the result of a conscious decision, they nevertheless indicated that there were specific factors that motivated their language use. The interviewees who said they had not consciously decided to place an *all-English* ad each gave a different motivation for placing such an ad. In one case, a lack of time was cited as a reason: all the documentation provided was in English and there was no time for a translation. In another case, the respondent said that the choice for English was not a conscious one, in the sense that it was self-evident: all internal and external communication in her organisation was in English. Those who remarked that their decision to place a *partly English* ad was not made consciously indicated that this was because English terms were in common use, either in their sector or in the Netherlands in general. Similarly, the respondents who said that their decision to place an *all-Dutch* ad had been an unconscious choice, explained their decision by saying that very few English terms were used in their organisations' sector, the Building industry and Health Care sector, respectively. It can, therefore, be concluded that, even when the respondents' use of English or Dutch was not the result of a conscious decision, this language use was not a random decision. While these interviewees could be said to suggest that their use of English or Dutch was forced upon them by given circumstances, it was still a matter that in their view had a clear motivation.

In answer to RQ 1, it can be concluded that the use of English or Dutch was said to be a conscious decision by the majority of the interviewees.

5.3.2 Interviewees' views on the comprehensibility of English or Dutch for target groups (RQ 2)

Table 5.4 summarises the respondents' answers to the questions whether they thought understanding the English or Dutch they had used in their job ads would be a problem for the ads' target groups, and whether they had tested this.

Table 5.4. Interviewees' views on the comprehensibility of the English and Dutch used in their job ads for the target groups and whether they had tested this

	E (<i>n</i> = 10)	P (<i>n</i> = 9)	D (<i>n</i> = 8)
<i>Assumed comprehensibility</i>			
Comprehensibility would not be a problem	10	6	7
Comprehensibility would be a problem	0	2	1
No comment on comprehensibility	0	1	0
<i>Testing of comprehensibility</i>			
No comment on testing of comprehensibility	3	2	0
Not tested	3	6	4
Tested before publication using members of target group outside the organisation	0	0	0
Checked after publication using members of the target group (in job interviews)	3	0	0
Checked before publication using members of the organisation in positions similar to those advertised	0	1	2 ^a
Checked before publication using members of the organisation in positions different from those advertised and/or members of advertising agency	1	0	3 ^a

Note. E = makers of the all-English job ads; P = makers of the partly English job ads; D = makers of the all-Dutch job ads; ^aOne interviewee's answers fell in both categories.

As Table 5.4 shows, most of the interviewees said that understanding the English or Dutch used in their job ads would not pose any problems for the target groups. In the case of the *all-English* ads, in fact, all the respondents said comprehensibility would not be a problem for the target groups. Some respondents added that readers who would not understand the ad would not be suitable candidates. In other words, they would not be the intended target group. As for the *partly English* job advertisements, the majority of those who had placed these ads did not think understanding the English terms used would be problematic for the

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target group. Just as was observed with respect to the all-English ads, one respondent noted that if candidates did not understand the English terms used, they were not suitable for the job. There were a few respondents who did think that their use of English terms might lead to comprehension problems, but at the same time they pointed out that this was not entirely disadvantageous or insurmountable. In one case, a respondent who had placed an advertisement for "callcenter agents" said that what exactly a call centre agent does may not be clear to the readers of the ad. He added that he exploited this lack of clarity, because the job title was deliberately intended to cover a wide range of activities. Another respondent said that a particular English term might not be clear to all those targeted, but that the rest of the ad gave information on what it entailed. With respect to the *all-Dutch* advertisements, the majority of respondents who had placed these ads remarked that comprehension would be no problem for the target group. There was one exception to this. One respondent said that some of the health-care-specific terms in her advertisement might present a problem for applicants for the managerial post advertised if they worked in other sectors. At the same time, she remarked that the rest of the advertisement was so clear that it would enable candidates to decide whether or not they would like to apply. In answer to RQ 2a, it can, therefore, on the whole be concluded that comprehension of the English or Dutch used in the job advertisements was not deemed to be problematical for the ads' target groups.

Table 5.4 also shows that a number of respondents (just under half) had not tested whether members of the target group actually understood the advertisements. No respondents had carried out such tests involving members of the target group outside the organisation before the ads were published. However, some of those who had placed an all-English job ad said they asked applicants in job interviews whether the ad they responded to had been clear, and some of the interviewees who had placed a partly English or an all-Dutch job ad remarked that they had asked current employees in positions similar to those advertised to read the ads before they were published to determine whether they were clear. In some cases, the comprehensibility of the advertisements was tested by having them read by members of the organisation in positions different from those advertised, for instance secretaries and managers, and/or by employees of the

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advertising agency involved in drawing up the ads. The interviews did not explore whether the feedback received was used to adapt the ads, but one interviewee said he found the criticism he had received in this way useful, thus implying that he had implemented it. In answer to RQ 2b, it can be concluded that a majority of writers did not perform pre- or post-publications tests with members of the target group or comparable current employees.

5.3.3 Reasons given for the language used (RQ 3)

This section describes the reasons the interviewees gave for the language they used in the job advertisements they had placed. It begins by presenting the reasons they gave for placing an all-English ad (5.3.3.1), for placing a partly English ad (5.3.3.2), and for placing an all-Dutch ad (5.3.3.3). It then compares the reasons given for the use of the all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job advertisements (5.3.3.4).

5.3.3.1 Reasons for the all-English ads

This section first presents the symbolic and then the non-symbolic reasons the interviewees gave for placing an all-English job advertisement. It ends by pointing out what reasons were dominant.

Symbolic reasons for the use of the all-English ads

The symbolic reasons for the use of the all-English job advertisements mentioned by the makers of these ads are summarised in Table 5.5.

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Table 5.5. Number of interviewees who mentioned a particular *symbolic* reason for the use of an *all-English* job ad ($n = 10$)

Entity to which reason refers		
<i>Sender</i>	<i>Organisation</i>	
	All-English ad indicates international nature of organisation	4
	All-English ad indicates that English is language of communication in organisation	1
<i>Message</i>	<i>Job</i>	
	All-English ad indicates job involves work abroad in the future	1
	<i>Text</i> : No reasons mentioned	-
	<i>Words</i> : No reasons mentioned	-
<i>Receiver</i>	<i>Target group</i>	
	All-English ad signals importance of good communication skills in English	6
	All-English ad signals that knowledge of Dutch is not necessary	2
	All-English ad signals that application letter is to be written in English	2
<i>Context</i>	<i>Sector</i> : No reasons mentioned	-
	<i>Dutch Society</i> : No reasons mentioned	-

Note. Since the interviewees could give as many reasons as they wanted, the number of reasons does not equal the number of interviewees.

As Table 5.5 shows, the symbolic reasons mentioned for the use of the all-English job ads related to the following three entities: organisation, job, and target group. The interviewees' remarks regarding each of these will be discussed in more detail below.

An all-English job advertisement was said to be used to express two characteristics of the **organisation** where the vacancy was to be filled. First of all, it was said that such an ad indicated the organisation was international:

"It is an organisation that has an international character and that was what they wanted to communicate. That is why the text is in English" (E1)

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Secondly, in one case the use of an-English ad was said to indicate that English was the language of communication in the organisation with the vacancy.

The use of an all-English job ad was very rarely said to express characteristics of the **job** that was advertised. One respondent observed that an all-English advertisement indicated that the job offered opportunities for the successful applicant to work abroad at some point in the future:

"We offer you the opportunity to develop yourself and to go from one job in Human Resource Management to the other. And that can also be abroad, because we are a very international company, which operates in more than 140 countries in the world, and we also offer international opportunities. And the use of English shows that." (E8)

The use of an all-English job advertisement was not said to be motivated by symbolic concerns to do with the **text** of the advertisement, such as a desire to make the advertisement more attractive.

An all-English job advertisement was said to be used to indicate a number of requirements with respect to the **target group** of the ads. The requirements mentioned focused on the importance of English language skills for successful applicants. The majority of interviewees noted that an all-English ad indicated candidates would have to communicate in English in their future jobs. They said these ads indicated that a good command of English was necessary, while some added that such ads signalled that if respondents did not have a good command of English, they need not apply. As one interviewee put it:

"...with this we show that if you don't speak English, you don't need to apply. And knowledge of the English language, spoken and written is always essential." (E8)

In some cases, an all-English ad was said to indicate a more specific requirement regarding English. Respondents stated that an all-English ad indicated a letter of application needed to be written in English. One of them further explained this meant that non-Dutch-speaking colleagues could

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evaluate the application letters. A few respondents also mentioned an all-English ad indicated that knowledge of Dutch was not necessary to fill the job because communication was in English.

Non-symbolic reasons for the use of the all-English ads

The non-symbolic reasons for the use of the all-English job advertisements mentioned by the makers of these ads are summarised in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6. Number of interviewees who mentioned a particular *non-symbolic* reason for the use of an *all-English* job ad ($n = 10$)

Entity to which reason refers		
<i>Sender</i>	<i>Organisation</i>	
	The organisation is international	6
	English is language of communication in organisation	4
	Using English in external communication is company policy	3
	There was time pressure, so no time to turn into Dutch	1
	Source texts were in English	1
	Person with final responsibility can read English, but not Dutch	1
<i>Message</i>	<i>Job</i> : No reasons mentioned	-
	<i>Text</i> : No reasons mentioned	-
	<i>Words</i>	
	There are no equivalents for English terms in Dutch	1
<i>Receiver</i>	<i>Target group</i>	
	Target group is international/non-Dutch	7
<i>Context</i>	<i>Sector</i>	
	English is commonly used in sector	2
	Ads in English are common in sector	1
	<i>Dutch society</i> : No reasons mentioned	-

Note. Since the interviewees could give as many reasons as they wanted, the number of reasons does not equal the number of interviewees.

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Table 5.6 shows that the reasons the interviewees gave related to the following entities: organisation, words, target group and sector. Their remarks regarding these will be discussed in more detail below.

A number of non-symbolic reasons for the use of an all-English job advertisement were given that related to the **organisation** where the vacancy was to be filled or to the organisation which made the advertisement. Two of these related to more or less permanent organisational characteristics. First of all, the majority of interviewees said a reason for the use of an all-English ad was that the organisation where the vacancy was to be filled was international. Some of them added that this meant English was the organisation's corporate language or language of communication, which, as a few respondents further specified, in turn meant that all external communication was in English too:

"We're an international organisation, so we communicate externally in English" (E9)

The second reason that related to more or less permanent organisational characteristics was that it was company policy for all external communication, including job advertisements, to be in English.

Other organisational reasons for the use of an all-English job advertisement did not relate to such permanent characteristics. In one case, there were a number of particular organisational circumstances at a particular time that led to an all-English ad being placed. The interviewee pointed out that, to begin with, it was suddenly indicated to him by the organisation for which he worked as an intermediary that the ad was to be published sooner than originally thought. In combination with the fact that all the material on which the ad was to be based was in English, some of which was difficult to translate into Dutch, this made him decide to cut and paste that English material rather than translate it. Placing an all-English ad largely made up of material provided by the organisation was also an attempt to please the organisation's general manager, whose Dutch was very poor. This manager would now be able to see for himself straightaway that the advertisement as it was placed was correct. If the advertisement had been in Dutch, the manager would have had to ask others to point out exactly what it said, and whether it was right, and he would have been more

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likely to find fault with it. In this case, unlike the others, the decision to place an all-English ad was ad-hoc. If the interviewee had had more time, he said he would have preferred to write the ad in Dutch.

Non-symbolic reasons to do with the **words** in the advertisements were very rarely mentioned as a motivation for placing an all-English ad. As was indicated in the discussion of organisational reasons in the paragraph above, one respondent pointed out that there was no Dutch equivalent for certain terminology, which made it difficult to turn the English source texts into a Dutch advertisement, especially given the lack of time he had to do this:

"Because a number of things are very easy to translate into Dutch, but a number of things are more difficult to translate." (E3)

There was one non-symbolic **target-group**-related reason for the use of an all-English job advertisement that was mentioned by a majority of interviewees. They indicated that they placed such ads in order to reach an international target group in addition to Dutch candidates, i.e. people who are not Dutch and cannot read a Dutch job advertisement, but who can understand an English one:

"Because we have many foreigners working here too, and we hope to get more of them, people from Spain, England, America, India, and they can then understand it too." (E7)

As well as people from outside the Netherlands, this international target group could include foreign students at Dutch universities, and foreign people who currently work in the Netherlands. One respondent explained that it was necessary to advertise in English because, given the specialised nature of the job, it was unlikely that there would be sufficient numbers of suitable candidates in the Netherlands:

"The Netherlands is simply too small to get people from" (E4)

Another respondent explained that people with a non-Dutch background were more suitable candidates for the job she advertised than were Dutch

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people, because they were more likely to have the required expertise (in the area of common law).

One interviewee could be described as a ‘deviant case’ in relation to the importance of reaching an international non-Dutch-speaking target group as a reason for placing an all-English job advertisement. He was an exception to the trend described so far in that he explicitly said the intended target group of the all-English ad he had placed were Dutch and Flemish people. In his case, the use of such an ad was, therefore, not motivated by the wish to reach non-Dutch-speaking candidates. Instead, it was motivated by a symbolic reason discussed earlier, the wish to indicate that candidates should be able to communicate in English, and by a non-symbolic reason, the fact that English was commonly used in the sector. In this case, therefore, these two other reasons took precedence over a possible wish to reach people who do not speak Dutch.

Two non-symbolic reasons were given for the use of an all-English job advertisement in relation to the **sector** of the organisation where the vacancy was to be filled. The first reason was that English was commonly used as the language of communication in the sector:

“In that world mainly English is spoken. [...] shipping is in English” (E3)

The second reason was that all-English job ads were more common in a particular sector (finance) than in other sectors.

Dominant reasons for the use of an all-English ad

The following reasons for placing an all-English ad were considered dominant because they were mentioned by a majority of interviewees:

- Such ads indicated the importance of English language skills on the part of the target group (a symbolic target-group-related motivation).
- The organisation with the vacancy was an international organisation (a non-symbolic organisational reason).

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- The organisation wished to reach an international target group in addition to Dutch candidates (a non-symbolic target-group-related reason).

Two sets of reasons were considered dominant because they had an underlying concept in common that related to various entities. The first set is covered by the concept of '*internationality*', which links symbolic and non-symbolic reasons relating to the organisation as well as non-symbolic reasons expressed in relation to the target group. The reasons concerned were the following:

- An all-English ad was placed because the organisation and the target group was international (non-symbolic reasons).
- An all-English ad was placed to indicate the international nature of the organisation and the job (symbolic reasons).

Another concept, '*importance of the English language*', links both symbolic and non-symbolic reasons relating to the organisation and the target group, and a non-symbolic reason relating to the sector of the organisation with the vacancy. The reasons concerned were the following:

- An all-English ad was placed because English was the language of communication in the organisation and because English was commonly used in the sector (non-symbolic reasons).
- An all-English ad was placed to indicate that English was the language of communication in the organisation, and that it was important for the target group to have good English communication skills (symbolic reasons).

5.3.3.2 Reasons for the partly English ads

This section first presents the symbolic and then the non-symbolic reasons the interviewees gave for placing a partly English job advertisement. It ends by pointing out what reasons were dominant.

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Symbolic reasons for the use of the partly English ads

The symbolic reasons for the use of the partly English job advertisements mentioned by the makers of these ads are summarised in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7. Number of interviewees who mentioned a particular *symbolic* reason for the use of a *partly English* job ad ($n = 9$)

Entity to which reason refers		
<i>Sender</i>	<i>Organisation</i> : No reasons mentioned	-
<i>Message</i>	<i>Job</i>	
	English terms indicate that job has more status than when Dutch terms are used	1
	English terms indicate the job is more modern than when Dutch terms are used	1
	<i>Text</i>	
	English terms make the ad more attractive than when Dutch terms are used	1
	<i>Words</i>	
	English terms sound better than Dutch terms	1
<i>Receiver</i>	<i>Target group</i> : No reasons mentioned	-
<i>Context</i>	<i>Sector</i> : No reasons mentioned	-
	<i>Dutch Society</i> : No reasons mentioned	-

Note. Since the interviewees could give as many reasons as they wanted, the number of reasons does not equal the number of interviewees.

As Table 5.7 shows, the symbolic reasons mentioned for the use of a partly English job ad related to the following three entities: job, text and words. The interviewees' remarks regarding each of these will be discussed in more detail below. As is indicated in the table, each symbolic reason was given by only one respondent. In fact, as will be pointed out below, one particular individual was the source of a number of different reasons.

The use of English terms in Dutch job advertisements was not said to be motivated by symbolic concerns to do with the **organisation** that advertised the vacancy, such as a desire to enhance the organisation's status. The one interviewee who commented on such concerns stated that he did not believe companies use English terms in a job ad to give the organisation more status and that he certainly did not use them for that purpose himself.

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Two symbolic reasons for the use of a partly English job ad were given which related to the **job** that was advertised. The first reason was that a job with an English title had more status:

"You are slowly more and more pushed in that direction, really, to use English terminology, because the moment you don't use it, it may be seen more as a somewhat lower level or something." (P9)

While this reason could be said to indicate the general image-enhancing effect of English on the job advertised, a second reason related to the effects of the use of English terms on a particular aspect of the image of the job, i.e. its modernity:

"Because why don't you put 'Hoofd PZ' [Head of Personnel] here? Well, no one would apply. That's history. They are hardly looked for, 'Hoofd PZ', that's in the past. [...] 'human resource manager' is to say someone who's of these times." (P2)

One symbolic reason that related to the **text** of the advertisement was mentioned to explain the use of English terms. Such terms were said to make the advertisement more attractive. This motivation was adduced by the same respondent who remarked that an English job title indicated a job was modern. He explained the choice of the English phrase "track record" instead of its Dutch equivalent 'staat van dienst' by remarking:

"Yes, it must be persuasive, it must be attractive, such an ad. It must be fireworks" (P2)

One symbolic reason for the use of a partly English job ad was mentioned that related to characteristics of the English **words** used compared to Dutch equivalents. English terms were said to sound better than their Dutch counterparts. Again, this was remarked by the same respondent who commented on the modernity of a job with an English job title and the favourable effect of the use of English terms on the text of the ad. He pointed out that English words were more appealing, more powerful, and sexier:

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"Now, sometimes it reads ... nice. It is sometimes a bit more powerful. [...] sometimes it's erm more appealing. Sexy it's sometimes called." (P2)

He also commented negatively on the attractiveness of the Dutch alternative 'staat van dienst' for the phrase "track record" he used in the job ad he had placed, calling it dull ["suf"] and frumpy ["tuttig"].

Non-symbolic reasons for the use of the partly English job ads

The non-symbolic reasons for the use of the partly English job advertisements mentioned by the makers of these ads are summarised in Table 5.8.

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Table 5.8. Number of interviewees who mentioned a particular *non-symbolic* reason for the use of a *partly English* job ad ($n = 9$)

Entity to which reason refers		
<i>Sender</i>	<i>Organisation</i>	
	English terms in ad are common in organisation	5
	English terms in ad are common in international branches of organisation	2
	English is language of communication in organisation	2
	There was time pressure, so no time to turn English terms into Dutch	1
<i>Message</i>	<i>Job</i> : No reasons mentioned	-
	<i>Text</i>	
	English terms would attract attention to the ad	1
	<i>Words</i>	
	English terms in ad have no Dutch equivalents	5
	English formulations are more concise than Dutch formulations	3
	English terms in ad are shorter than Dutch equivalents	1
	Concept and term originate from English-speaking country	1
	Job title in English is gender-neutral while Dutch equivalents are not	1
	<i>Receiver</i>	
<i>Context</i>	<i>Target group</i>	
	Target group is Dutch	1
	<i>Sector</i>	
	English terms in ad are common in sector	7
	<i>Dutch society</i>	
	English terms in ad are common in Dutch society	4
	English terms are generally common in Dutch society	1
	All Dutch people with some education know English	1

Note. Since the interviewees could give as many reasons as they wanted, the number of reasons does not equal the number of interviewees.

As can be seen in Table 5.8, the non-symbolic reasons given for the use of a partly English ad related to the following entities: the organisation with the vacancy, the text of the advertisement, the words in the ad, the ad's target group, the sector to which the organisation belongs, and Dutch society. Each of these will be discussed in more detail below.

A number of non-symbolic **organisational** reasons were given for the use of a partly English ad. The first reason, mentioned by a majority of the respondents, was that the English terms in the ad were commonly used in the organisation where the vacancy was to be filled. A second, related reason was that the English terms in the ad were used in the organisation internationally, in branches of the organisation in various countries, to create

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international consistency. This reason was explained by one respondent as follows:

"We're an international firm with clients worldwide and then at a certain moment you're going to conform to each other" (P8).

In another case, it was explained that the names used to refer to divisions of the organisation in the job ad were in English because the organisation's head office was in Great Britain, and it decided that English names should be used for these divisions in various countries. A third organisational reason given for the use of English terminology in the job ad was that English was the language of communication in the organisation.

All the reasons mentioned so far indicate that the use of English terms in job ads was motivated by the use of such terms in the organisation in general. A final organisational reason given is not captured by this. In one case, the use of English terms was motivated by circumstances in the organisation at a particular time. The interviewee said that he was faced with a deadline, and therefore had no time to turn all the English terms into Dutch:

"Yes again, it was first in English, and went to Dutch, under enormous pressure of time, before a deadline, so a number of things are not very easy to translate quickly." (P2).

One non-symbolic **text**-related reason for the use of a partly English job ad was revealed by the interviews. According to one respondent, the use of an English job title would attract attention to the advertisement.

Five non-symbolic reasons at **word** level were mentioned to explain the use of a partly English job advertisement. The first reason, mentioned by the majority of respondents, was that there were no Dutch equivalents for the English terms used in the ad:

"'Callcenter agent' is a good term for that. If you were going to translate that, you'd almost not be able to work it out. You'd very quickly give a very specific translation. It can't be 'telefonische

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verkoopmedewerker' [telephonic sales worker], because we do more than selling. It can't be that." (P1).

The second reason was that an English formulation was more concise than a potential Dutch equivalent, since a Dutch formulation would require more words:

"And I wouldn't know a Dutch word for that [executive search], unless it would become a sentence." (P8).

"Yes, that ['direct reports'] a very brief ...; in two words you say something that people understand and in Dutch you need many more words for that." (P2).

The third non-symbolic reason at word level was that the English word used in the ad was shorter than its Dutch equivalent. When asked to comment on 'callcenter medewerker' as an alternative for "callcenter agent", the job title which was used in the ad he had placed, one respondent said the brevity of the word "agent" was one of the reasons for using it. It made the ad less expensive, because it took up less space than the Dutch word, and its shortness also made it easier to read:

"'Medewerker' is fine, absolutely. Only if you had wanted to print that in bold, 'medewerker' would end about here and the advertisement would be about twice as expensive. And it doesn't read as easily." (P1).

The fourth non-symbolic reason relating to characteristics of English as opposed to Dutch words was that an English job title was gender-neutral, whereas its possible Dutch equivalents would not be. One interviewee stated that he used an English job title including the word "manager" because Dutch alternatives he had considered either explicitly referred to a male person ("huismeester" [major domo]) or a female person ("huisdame" [house lady]). The final non-symbolic reason for the use of English terms, mentioned by one respondent, was that the concept and the term originated from an English-speaking country:

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*"The whole standard 'Investor in People' is an English invention."
(P7)*

One non-symbolic **target-group**-related reason was given for the use of a partly English job ad, i.e. that the target group was Dutch, since the successful candidate should be familiar with the Dutch situation. One interviewee, who worked for a recruitment agency, pointed out that his client and himself had decided to place a partly English and not an all-English ad, because they wanted a Dutch person for the job since it involved knowledge of Dutch labour relations and Dutch legislation:

"They were looking for a Dutch person. Because it is about labour relations and policies and about works councils and Dutch legislation. And that is complex and a foreigner does not understand that at all." (P2).

One non-symbolic reason to do with the **sector** or field of the organisation with the vacancy was mentioned by the majority of interviews to explain their use of a partly English ad. This reason was that English terms were commonly used in the sector in which the organisation operates:

"Because these are the standard terms that are used. It is unusual to talk about these sorts of things in Dutch." (P4).

"This is the jargon of the profession" (P8).

Some of the respondents who gave this reason added that because the English term was common in the sector, it was clear to applicants:

"And in the professional world everyone knows what 'researcher' is" (P8).

Three non-symbolic reasons that were to do with language use in **Dutch society** generally were mentioned to explain the use of a partly

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English job ad. The first reason, cited by a number of interviewees, was that the English terms in the ads were in common use in Dutch society:

"'job' is again such a word that is so naturalised [ingeburgerd] in Dutch by now." (P6).

One of the respondents who gave this reason further remarked that because the English terms used in the ad have become commonly used, everybody knows what they mean, which was an important consideration for him:

"The main thing is, I think, that it is settled [vastgeroeste] terminology, the terminology that is used [...] everybody also knows what it means; familiarity with the terminology is important for me." (P1).

A second reason to do with the language situation in the Netherlands, mentioned by one interviewee, was that all Dutch people with some education know some English at least, and, therefore, know what the English terms in the job ad mean:

"Because every Dutch person who's had some education knows something about English. They watch television and songs, so everyone knows what 'track records' is." (P2).

A final reason relating to Dutch society, given by one interviewee, was that English terms are generally widely encountered in the Netherlands, and therefore there is no avoiding them in job ads:

"especially because on television ... everything these days is a great deal of English of course. And there's really no escaping it." (P9).

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Dominant reasons for the use of a partly English ad

The following non-symbolic reasons given for the use of a partly English job advertisement were considered dominant because they were mentioned by a majority of interviewees:

- The English terms in the ad were commonly used in the organisation where the vacancy was to be filled (a non-symbolic organisational motivation).
- There were no Dutch equivalents for the English terms that were used in the ad (a non-symbolic word-related motivation).
- English terms were commonly used in the sector in which the organisation operated (a non-symbolic contextual motivation).

A number of non-symbolic reasons for the use of a partly English job advertisement were considered dominant because they were linked by the underlying concept of '*common usage*' in relation to various entities: organisation, sector and Dutch society. English terms were said to be used in job ads because they were commonly used

- in the organisation with the vacancy;
- in the sector to which the organisation belongs;
- in Dutch society.

5.3.3.3 Reasons for the all-Dutch ads

This section first presents the symbolic and then the non-symbolic reasons the interviewees gave for placing an all-Dutch job advertisement. It ends by pointing out what reasons were dominant.

Symbolic reasons for the use of the all-Dutch ads

The symbolic reasons for the use of the all-Dutch job advertisements mentioned by the makers of these ads are summarised in Table 5.9.

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Table 5.9. Number of interviewees who mentioned a particular *symbolic* reason for the use of an *all-Dutch* job ad ($n = 8$)

Entity to which reason refers		
Sender	<i>Organisation</i>	
	All-Dutch ad indicates that the organisation is Dutch, not internationally oriented or English	3
	All-Dutch ad indicates that the organisation is down to earth, without fuss, solid	3
Message	<i>Job</i>	
	All-Dutch ad does not suggest that position is higher than it actually is unlike use of English terms in ad	1
	<i>Text</i> : No reasons mentioned	-
	<i>Words</i>	
	Dutch terms in ad are not exaggerated but English terms would be	5
	Use of Dutch terms in ad to protect Dutch language and culture from English influence	3
Receiver	Dutch terms in ad sound better than English terms	1
	<i>Target group</i>	
	All-Dutch ad signals importance of good communication skills in Dutch	1
	All-Dutch ad is more appealing to down-to-earth target group than ad containing English terms	1
	<i>Context</i>	
Context	<i>Sector</i> : No reasons mentioned	-
	<i>Dutch Society</i> : No reasons mentioned	-

Note. Since the interviewees could give as many reasons as they wanted, the number of reasons does not equal the number of interviewees.

Table 5.9 shows that the symbolic reasons mentioned for placing an all-Dutch ad related to the following elements: the organisation with the vacancy, the job advertised, the words in the ad, and the ad's target group. Each of these will be discussed in more detail below.

The use of an all-Dutch job advertisement was said to express two sorts of characteristics of the **organisation** where the vacancy was to be filled. First of all, some interviewees said that the use of an all-Dutch advertisement signalled the company was a Dutch company, not internationally oriented or English:

"I hope that we send out the signal that we're a Dutch company, not internationally oriented, and that we're also proud of that."
(D6).

Secondly, some interviewees mentioned that the use of an all-Dutch ad signalled the organisation was down-to-earth and solid:

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"There's also something in it like 'don't exaggerate' [gewoon doen]" (D4)

The use of an all-Dutch ad was rarely said to express certain characteristics of the **job** that was advertised in the ad. When asked about the reason for not using 'contract manager' instead of "contractbeheerder" in the ad she placed, one respondent said the English job title would suggest that the position was higher than it actually was:

"I think that it also gives the expectation that it's a higher position" (D1).

By implication, Dutch was, therefore, thought not to inflate the image of the job.

The respondents mentioned three symbolic reasons at **word** level for using an all-Dutch job advertisement rather than an ad that contained English. First of all, the majority of interviewees thought that the use of an English word instead of a Dutch word would be exaggerated. For instance, when asked to comment on a formulation involving the phrase 'team player' as an alternative for the phrase "van de coördinator wordt verwacht dat hij/zij als teamlid opereert" [the coordinator is expected to operate as a team member] from his job ad, one respondent remarked:

"No, that is what I consider inflating [opkloppen]" (D5).

The second word-related symbolic reason interviewees gave for placing an all-Dutch ad was to protect Dutch culture and language from the threat of English words and to keep Dutch beautiful. Some of the respondents who mentioned this reason explicitly said that they acted out of purist motives. One of them, for instance, said:

"I myself am quite a language purist. So then if you want to keep Dutch beautiful, it's also nice to do it like that in advertisements." (D3).

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The third reason, mentioned by one respondent, was that Dutch words sound better than their English equivalents:

"Because I think that's more beautiful; 'voltijd' or 'deeltijd' I actually think are much more beautiful than 'fulltime' or 'parttime'." (D3)

Two symbolic reasons relating to the ad's **target group** were mentioned for the use of an all-Dutch ad, both by single respondents. First of all, the use of an all-Dutch ad was said to indicate that successful candidates must be able to communicate in Dutch:

"I think that we, if I for our advertisement.., that you send out the background of the company, a Dutch company, and we want people to be able to communicate in Dutch" (D2)

Secondly, it was said that the use of an all-Dutch advertisement as opposed to an ad with English terms would appeal to a no-nonsense, down-to-earth target group:

"We want to ask people from the randstad [the urban agglomeration of Western Holland] here, people who have both feet on the ground and not with 'I'm so important and erm' and so on. You must have people who do have quality but simply our level-headedness [nuchterheid]" (D5).

Non-symbolic reasons for the use of the all-Dutch ads

The non-symbolic reasons for the use of the all-Dutch job advertisements mentioned by the makers of these ads are summarised in Table 5.10.

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Table 5.10. Number of interviewees who mentioned a particular *non-symbolic* reason for the use of an *all-Dutch* job ad ($n = 8$)

Entity to which reason refers		
Sender	<i>Organisation</i>	
	Dutch is language of communication in organisation	7
	The organisation is Dutch	5
	Dutch terms in ad are commonly used in organisation	2
Message	<i>Job</i>	
	The job focuses on the Netherlands	3
	<i>Text</i>	
	Text of all-Dutch ads is clear and easy to understand	5
	English terms would create inconsistency in otherwise Dutch ad	4
	<i>Words</i>	
Receiver	Dutch terms in ad are clearer and more comprehensible than English terms would be	3
	<i>Target group</i>	
	Target group is Dutch	6
	A secondary target group understands Dutch terms in ad better than English terms	2
Context	<i>Sector</i>	
	Dutch terms in ad are common in sector	6
	<i>Dutch society</i> : No reasons mentioned	-

Note. Since the interviewees could give as many reasons as they wanted, the number of reasons does not equal the number of interviewees.

As Table 5.10 reveals, non-symbolic reasons for placing an all-Dutch ad related to the following elements: the organisation with the vacancy, the job advertised, the text of the advertisement, the words in the ad, the ad's target group, and the sector to which the organisation belonged. Each of these will be presented in more detail below.

The respondents gave three non-symbolic **organisational** reasons for using an all-Dutch advertisement. The first reason, mentioned by the majority of interviewees, was that Dutch was commonly used within the organisation. The second reason, also put forward by a majority of respondents, was that the organisation was a Dutch company:

"The city council is of course a Dutch business par excellence. The language of communication is also Dutch, and yes right it is with its feet in the Dutch, so you address the people in Dutch." (D3)

The third organisational reason given was that the use of Dutch words was consistent with Dutch terms used within the organisation:

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"[why not use 'engineer' instead of 'ingenieur'?] No, because then it would not be consistent with respect to 'adviseur'. So then you must follow a consistent line. If you had 'consultant' here, then I would consider 'engineer' to be fine too." (D4)

One non-symbolic **job**-related reason was given for the use of an all-Dutch advertisement. Some respondents said they placed such an ad because the job advertised was based in the Netherlands (or focussed on the Netherlands):

"While the ordinary counsellor, who does the primary process, you hardly see any English terminology in the advertisement. That's simply because these people are involved in the social map, and the social map is only in the Netherlands, and therefore they are completely based on the Netherlands. The position is actually all to do with the Netherlands, with Personnel & Organisation." (D7)

Two non-symbolic **text**-related reasons for using an all-Dutch job advertisement were given by the respondents. First of all, the majority of the interviewees stated that such ads were clear, easy to understand and would prevent comprehension problems:

"Simply in Dutch, also to increase [bevorderen] clarity." (D4)

Secondly, language consistency within the advertisement was mentioned as a reason for using Dutch throughout the ad:

"[why use of 'helikopterblik' instead of 'helikopterview'] Well why yet again an English word? We want to be clear, we want to say it in English and then one English word comes up. Well, let's then choose the Dutch word. It's simply being consistent. [...] So at a certain moment you choose for a consistent Dutch line. Then you must also not put in 'financial'." (D5)

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One non-symbolic **word**-related reason for using an all-Dutch job advertisement was mentioned by the respondents. It was observed that although there might have been English equivalents, the Dutch word was clear and covered what was meant and therefore sufficed:

“What you want to have is what you write down. And English is after all often somewhat more confused. It is somewhat more remote from people. In Dutch you can say very well what you're looking for.” (D3)

Two non-symbolic reasons relating to the **target group** were mentioned for the use of an all-Dutch ad. First of all, the majority of the respondents indicated that they placed an all-Dutch ad because the target group consisted of Dutch candidates. One of them said that she wanted to reach candidates from the area where the organisation was located, and others indicated that they wished to reach candidates with knowledge of the Dutch situation:

“We want to recruit Dutch people and people who know about the city council too, as a specific business. So we wouldn't be going to recruit English people.” (D4)

The second reason given was that the ad's secondary target group would understand the ad better when it was in Dutch. This was mentioned by respondents from the care sector, who identified the secondary target groups as elderly people or people with certain learning difficulties:

“For a large part that's also because of client group, who often has mental restrictions. About 60% of our clients are people with a restriction. Then it is actually advisable to employ language which is as simple as possible, so people understand it too. [...] We simply extend that to all brochures, and as much as possible in the advertisements too, simply the advertisements we place with our services but also in the [job advertisements]” (D7)

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One non-symbolic **sector**-related reason was given for using an all-Dutch ad. The majority of respondents said they used Dutch terms because they were more common in the organisations' sectors than English ones:

"And English terms, erm, in my field simply Dutch is spoken. [...] In the city council [name] we use, I always use Dutch. In my previous job, I indeed also used more English, but not here. That's purely to do with the sector I'm in." (D3)

This reason was further explained by one respondent, who remarked that the fact that Dutch words were common in the sector made the ad clearer to the target group:

"When you choose English, you can also get more noise [ruis], that there are different intentions behind it. This is clearest for the people who work in these fields." (D1).

One respondent, however, put the importance of sector practices in perspective. He said that the sector may not be as important as the personal preferences of the maker of the ad. He himself had worked in commercial international organisations before working in the care sector and used less English than a colleague who had always worked in that particular sector.

Dominant reasons for the use of the all-Dutch ads

The following reasons for placing an all-Dutch ad were considered dominant because they were mentioned by a majority of interviewees:

- The use of an English word instead of a Dutch word would be exaggerated (symbolic word-level reason).
- Dutch was commonly used within the organisation (non-symbolic organisational reason).
- The organisation was a Dutch company (non-symbolic organisational reason).
- Such ads were clear, easy to understand and they would prevent comprehension problems (non-symbolic text-related reason).

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- The target group of the ads consisted of Dutch candidates (non-symbolic target-group-related reason).
- Dutch terms were used because they were more common in the organisations' sectors than English ones (non-symbolic sector-related reason).

Four sets of reasons were considered dominant because they had an underlying concept in common that related to various entities. The first concept which connects reasons relating to more than one entity is '*lack of exaggeration*', not claiming more than is warranted. This covers symbolic reasons relating to the organisation with the vacancy, the job advertised, the words in the ad, and the ad's target group. These symbolic reasons were the following:

- An all-Dutch ad indicated that the organisation was down to earth, without fuss, and solid.
- Dutch terms, unlike English terms, did not suggest the job was higher than it actually was.
- Dutch terms, unlike English terms, were not exaggerated.
- An all-Dutch ad was thought to be more appealing to a down-to-earth target group than an ad containing English terms.

The second concept which links reasons to several different entities is '*Dutchness*'. This covers symbolic reasons expressed in relation to the organisation with the vacancy and to the words in the ad, as well as non-symbolic reasons relating to the organisation, the job and the target group. The reasons concerned were the following:

- An all-Dutch ad was used because the organisation with the vacancy was Dutch, because the job advertised focussed on the Netherlands, and because the ad's target group was Dutch (non-symbolic reasons).
- An all-Dutch ad was used to indicate that the organisation was Dutch, not internationally oriented or English, and to protect Dutch language and culture from English influence (symbolic reasons).

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The third concept that links reasons relating to more than one entity is '*common usage*'. This concept covers non-symbolic reasons expressed in relation to the organisation and the sector to which the organisation belongs. The reasons were the following:

- Certain Dutch terms were used in the job ads because these words were commonly used in the organisation and in its sector.

The fourth concept linking several entities is '*comprehensibility*'. It covers non-symbolic reasons relating to the text of the advertisement, the words in it, and the ad's target group. The reasons concerned were the following. Dutch was used because:

- it made the text easy to understand;
- a Dutch word was clear;
- secondary target groups, elderly people and people with learning difficulties, would understand the ad better when it was Dutch.

5.3.3.4 Comparison of reasons given for the use of the all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job advertisements

The model of the role of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands presented in Chapter 1.3.6 indicated that there could be both symbolic and non-symbolic reasons for senders of job advertising messages to use English. The results of the interviews with makers of job ads presented so far show that they indeed give both symbolic and non-symbolic reasons for placing all-English, partly-English and all-Dutch ads (RQs 3a and 3b). The aim of this section is to investigate whether the model can be refined by determining whether there are reasons that apply to all three types of ad and whether there are reasons that are characteristic of one or two specific types of ad. It will first present the *similarities* between the reasons for the three types of ad and the entities to which they refer, in order to uncover patterns of motivation that underlie the use of English and Dutch. Next, it will present *differences* in the reasons given for the three types of ad and the entities to which they refer, in order to determine whether there are reasons that are distinctive for each type.

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Similarities between the reasons for the use of the all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job ads

Three kinds of similarities between the reasons for the use of the all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job ads will be presented:

1. similarities in the reasons the interviewees gave for *all three* types of ad;
2. similarities between the reasons given for the *all-Dutch* ads and for the *partly English/all-English* ads;
3. similarities between the reasons given for the *all-English* and *partly English* ads.

Similarities in the reasons the interviewees gave for all three types of ad

Tables 5.11 and 5.12 (on pp. 180-183) respectively summarise the symbolic and non-symbolic reasons mentioned by the interviewees for placing the all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job advertisements. At a general, abstract level, the tables show that the interviewees' decisions to place advertisements of all of these three types were informed by similar reasons, i.e. both symbolic and non-symbolic reasons relating to the same entities (RQs 3a, 3b, 3c and 3d). The entity to which interviewees linked symbolic reasons for all three types of ad was *job*. The entities to which they linked non-symbolic reasons for all three types of ad were *organisation*, *words*, *target group*, and *sector*. What the symbolic reasons for all three types of ad have in common is that the language use was motivated by a desire to in some way *express characteristics of the job advertised* (although it should be noted that this motivation is the researcher's cover term for individual symbolic reasons mentioned by the interviewees). What the non-symbolic reasons for all three types of ad have in common is that the language use was influenced by the language of communication in the organisation with the vacancy, by the language spoken by the target group, and by the language and terms that were common in the sector to which the organisation belonged.

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Similarities between the reasons given for the all-Dutch ads and for the partly English/all-English ads

A similarity between the motivations given for the all-Dutch job advertisements and the other two types is that a number of the reasons for placing an all-Dutch ad could be considered the counterparts of reasons given for placing an all-English or a partly English ad. As Tables 5.11 and 5.12 show, this applied to both symbolic and non-symbolic reasons.

Table 5.11 indicates that the following symbolic reasons for placing an all-Dutch ad had their counterparts in reasons for placing an all-English or a partly English ad. An *organisational* reason for placing an all-Dutch job ad was that this avoided the suggestion that the organisation with the vacancy was international and instead signalled that it was Dutch. This was the counterpart of the observations by interviewees that an all-English job ad indicated the international nature of the organisation with the vacancy. A *job-related* reason for the use of a Dutch job title was that the equivalent English title would suggest that the position was higher than it actually was, and would therefore create the wrong expectations. This is paralleled by remarks by an interviewee who had placed a partly English job ad to the effect that a job with an English title had more status. At *word* level, both the use of Dutch terms in an all-Dutch ad and the use of English terms in a partly English job ad were motivated by saying that these sounded better than their equivalents in the other language. A *target-group-related* reason for the use of an all-Dutch ad was that it indicated successful candidates must be able to communicate in Dutch. This can be argued to be the mirror image of signalling the importance of good English language skills being cited as a reason for placing an all-English job ad.

Table 5.12 reveals that the following non-symbolic reasons given for placing an all-Dutch ad had their counterparts in reasons for placing an all-English or partly English ad. The first *organisational* reason was that the use of Dutch terms in the ads was consistent with Dutch terms used within the organisation. This is paralleled by a reason given by the makers of the partly English ads: they used English terms in their ads because these were the terms used in the organisation with the vacancy. The second organisational reason was that the organisation with the vacancy was a Dutch company, with some interviewees adding that the organisation did not have any

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international activities. This could be seen as the counterpart of the remarks by the makers of the all-English ads that their reason for placing such ads was that the organisation was international. The third organisational reason was that Dutch was commonly used within the organisation. This had its counterpart in the makers of the all-English job ads saying that they placed such ads because English was the organisation's corporate language or language of communication, a reason which was also cited by the interviewees who had made a partly English ad. A *target-group*-related reason was the desire to reach a Dutch target group and not an international one, with some interviewees specifying that they wanted to reach candidates with knowledge of the Dutch situation. Conversely, the makers of the all-English job ads said they placed such ads to reach an international target group in addition to Dutch candidates, for instance because international candidates had expertise and skills that Dutch people lacked. At *word* level, interviewees motivated both the use of certain Dutch terms in an all-Dutch ad and the use of certain English terms in a partly English ad by pointing out that these terms were commonly used in the sector to which their organisation belonged.

The fact that, in these cases, the symbolic and non-symbolic reasons given for the use of an all-Dutch ad were the counterparts of the reasons for placing an all-English or a partly English ad shows that, although the outcome in terms of language use was different, at an underlying level, it was to some extent motivated by similar considerations.

Similarities between the reasons given for the all-English and partly English ads

In a few cases, there were similarities between the reasons given for the use of an all-English and a partly English job ad that were not shared by the all-Dutch job ads. The two reasons concerned were non-symbolic. First of all, at an *organisational* level, lack of time was cited as a reason for not translating an all-English ad and English terms in a partly English advertisement into Dutch. At *word* level, the absence of Dutch equivalents for certain English words was mentioned as a reason for not translating an all-English ad into Dutch and for using English terms in a partly English ad.

Differences between the reasons for the use of the all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job ads

There were not only similarities but also differences in the entities to which the reasons for placing the three ad types related (RQs 3c and 3d). As Table 5.11 shows, symbolic reasons relating to the *organisation* and the *target group* were given for the all-English and all-Dutch ads, but not for the partly English ads. Thus, language use was intended to express characteristics of the organisation and the target group in the case of the all-English and all-Dutch ads but not in the case of the partly English ads. The partly English ads were also different from the other two types of ad in that they were the only type of ad for which a *text*-related symbolic reason was given. Only in the case of the partly English ads was language use said to make the text more attractive. The symbolic motivation for the all-English ads differed from that for the other two types of ad in that the all-English ads were not motivated by symbolic reasons at *word* level. Unlike for the other two types, words in the all-English ads were, for instance, not chosen because they sounded better. Table 5.12 reveals that non-symbolic *job*-related reasons were only given for the all-Dutch advertisements. Thus, only the all-Dutch ads were motivated by the nature of the job, i.e., the fact that it was not international but focussed on the Netherlands. Non-symbolic reasons relating to *Dutch society* were only cited for the partly English advertisements, that is, only the language use in this type of advertisement was linked to common language use and language comprehension in Dutch society generally. The all-English advertisements were the only type of advertisement for which no non-symbolic *text*-related reasons were given, such as a desire to make the text clearer.

Tables 5.11 and 5.12 show that most of the reasons mentioned did not relate to all three types of ad, and that, in fact, the vast majority of reasons were only mentioned in relation to one type of ad. This suggests these reasons were specific to the language use in a particular type of advertisement, which confirms the validity of the decision to investigate and analyse the reasons for the all-English, partly English and all-Dutch ads separately. However, it should be borne in mind that the absence of a particular reason for a particular type of ad does not mean that such a reason could not theoretically apply to this type. A particular reason may

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also be absent because the interviewees just did not consider it relevant, perhaps because it was self-evident. For instance, some interviewees indicated a reason for placing a partly English ad was that English terms are commonly used in Dutch society. Obviously, Dutch terms are also common in the Netherlands, but this was not mentioned as a reason for using Dutch terms. At the very least, however, it can be said that the fact that a particular reason was given for placing a particular type of ad, and not for another, indicates that for one type this reason was an explicit consideration in the minds of the interviewees, while for the other type it was not.

Table 5.11. Symbolic reasons for the use of English or Dutch in job ads mentioned by their makers and similar comments from the literature on job and product ads

Reasons for language use			Ad type			Literature	
Entity	reason refers to	Intended effect	E	P	D	on job ads	on product ads
Sender	Organisation	signal international nature	++	--		30; 31	1; 2; 3; 11; 15; 21; 23; 24; 25; 28; 36; 41
		signal language of communication	++			43	
		signal down-to-earthness			++	33; 42	24
	Message	Job					
		signal status		+	--	27; 33; 38; 42	1; 17; 18; 25; 41
		signal modernity		+		38	1; 3; 11; 15; 23; 24; 25; 28; 36; 41; 44
		signal that job involves work abroad			++		
	Text	make attractive		+			2; 9
	Words	sound better		+	+	38	11; 29; 44
		are not exaggerated			++	33; 42	
		protect Dutch language/culture			++	37	1

The senders' perspective on using English or Dutch

Table 5.11 (*continued*)

Reasons for language use			Ad type			Literature	
Entity reason refers to	Intended effect		E	P	D	on job ads	on product ads
Receiver	Target group	signal good	++		+	19; 20;	
		communication skills in				43	
		ad language required					
		signal knowledge other	+				
		language not required					
		signal required	+				
		language of application					
		letter					
		make more appealing			++		
		to down-to-earth target					
		group					
Context	Sector	no reasons mentioned					
	Dutch society	no reasons mentioned					

Note. E = all-English job ad; P = partly English job ad; D = all-Dutch job ad. The term 'other language' refers to Dutch in the case of both the all-English and partly English ads, and it refers to English in the case of the all-Dutch ads. A plus sign ('+') indicates that a particular reason was given for placing the type of ad in question. A minus sign ('-') indicates that the reason given for placing a particular type of ad was the opposite of the way it was formulated in the description in the 'intended effect' column (e.g. 'not international, but Dutch' instead of 'international'). Double plus and double minus signs ('++' and '--') indicate dominant reasons. The numbers refer to the following publications: 1 = Alm (2003, pp. 145, 151-153); 2 = Baker & Van Gelder, 1997, p. 36; 3 = Bhatia (1992, p. 213); 9 = De Raaij (1997, p. 143); 11 = Fink et al. (1995, pp. 176, 214, 231); 15 = Gerritsen, et al. (2000, p. 20); 17 = Griffin (1997, p. 38); 18 = Haarmann (1989, pp. 234, 257); 19 = Hilgendorf (1996, p. 11); 20 = Hilgendorf & Martin (2001, p. 225); 21 = Hsu (2008), pp. 158-160; 23 = Kelly-Holmes (2000, p. 76); 24 = Kelly-Holmes (2005, pp. 71, 78-79); 25 = König (1974, as cited in Viereck, 1980, p. 252); 27 = Larson (1990, pp. 367-368); 28 = Martin (2006, p. 164); 29 = Masavisut et al. (1986, p. 203); 30 = Moore and Varantola (2005, p. 138); 31 = Müller-Thurau (1999, as cited in Seitz, 2008, p. 14); 33 = Peereboom (1991, p. 7); 36 = Piller (2003, p. 175); 37 = Schrauwers (1997, p. 191); 38 = Seitz (2008, pp. 11, 42); 41 = Takashi (1990, pp. 330-332); 42 = Tiggeler & Doeve (n.d., pp. 67, 77); 43 = Watts (2002, p. 117); 44 = Wetzler (2006, p. 310).

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Table 5.12. Non-symbolic reasons for use of English or Dutch in job ads mentioned by their makers and similar comments from the literature on job and product ads

Reasons for language use			Ad type			Literature	
Entity reason refers to	Ground for use		E	P	D	on job ads	on product ads
Sender	Organisation	terms common in organisation		++	++		44
		terms common in international branches of organisation		+		27	
		organisation international	++		--		17
		part of language of communication in organisation	++	+	++		
		language use is company policy for external communication	+				1; 24
		lack of time	+	+			
		Source text in language of ad	+				
		language restrictions of decision maker	+				
Message	Job	involves international contacts and/or work abroad			--	6	
	Text	attracts attention		+		19; 20; 38	1; 10; 34; 35
		comprehensibility			++		1
		language consistency			+		
	Words	no equivalents in other language	+	++		6	5; 11; 15; 29; 41
		conciseness		+			2
		brevity		+			11; 12; 25; 44
		clarity and comprehensibility			++	22; 26; 38; 40	
		concept/term originates from English-speaking country		+			
		job title is gender-neutral		+		13; 14	

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Table 5.12 (*continued*)

Reasons for language use			Ad type			Literature	
Entity reason refers to	Ground for use		E	P	D	on job ads	on product ads
Receiver	Target group	target group is international/non-Dutch comprehensibility for secondary target group	++	-	--	43	2
Context	Sector	language common in sector	++				
		terms common in sector		++	++	43	4; 16; 17; 32
		ads in this language common in sector	+				
	Dutch society	terms in this language generally common in Dutch society		+			2
		specific terms common in Dutch society		++			2; 5; 11; 39; 44
		educated Dutch people know English		+			7; 8

Note. E = all-English job ad; P = partly English job ad; D = all-Dutch job ad. The term 'other language' refers to Dutch in the case of both the all-English and partly English ads, and it refers to English in the case of the all-Dutch ads. A plus sign ('+') indicates that a particular reason was given for placing the type of ad in question. A minus sign ('-') indicates that the reason given for placing a particular type of ad was the opposite of the way it was formulated in the description in the 'ground for use' column (e.g. 'not international, but only Dutch' instead of 'international'). Double plus and double minus signs ('++' and '--') indicate dominant reasons. The numbers refer to the following publications: 1 = Alm (2003, pp. 150-151); 2 = Baker & Van Gelder, 1997, p. 36; 4 = Cheshire & Moser (1994, pp. 457-458); 5 = Clyne (1973, pp. 164-165); 6 = De Koning (1989, p. 218); 7 = De Mooij (1994, p. 288); 8 = De Mooij & Keegan (1991, p. 209); 10 = Domzal et al. (1995, pp. 99-101); 11 = Fink et al. (1995, pp. 176, 231); 12 = Friedrich (2002, p. 22); 13 = Gerritsen (2001, p. 108); 14 = Gerritsen (2002, p. 103); 15 = Gerritsen, et al.(2000, p. 20); 16 = Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van Hooft, et al. (2007, p. 306); 17 = Griffin (1997, p. 37); 19 = Hilgendorf (1996, p. 11); 20 = Hilgendorf & Martin (2001, p. 221); 22 = Jansen (2006, p. 7); 24 = Kelly-Holmes (2005, p. 75); 25 = König (1974, as cited in Viereck, 1980, p. 252); 26 = Kuiper (2007); 27 = Larson (1990, p. 367); 29 = Masavisut et al. (1986, p. 204); 32 = Neelankavil et al. (1995, p. 33); 34 = Petrof (1990, p. 4); 35 = Piller (2001, p. 163); 38 = Seitz (2008, p. 42) 39 = Sella (1993, p. 91); 40 = Taavitsainen & Pahta (2003, p. 8); 41 = Takashi (1990, pp. 330-331); 43 = Watts (2002, p. 116, 118); 44 = Wetzler (2006, pp. 300, 303, 308-309, 314-316). N.B. De Koning (1989) is not specifically about English in job ads, but about job titles.

5.4 Conclusion

The interview study reported on in the present chapter explored the perspective of makers of job ads on the use and non-use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands. In what follows, it will be indicated to what extent the information gained from the interviews can be used to refine and adapt the model of the role of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands described in Chapter 1.3.6. It will also be discussed to what extent the interviews yielded new insights that had not been mentioned in the existing literature.

As was indicated in Section 5.1, the interviews specifically aimed to discover:

- to what extent placing an all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job ad had been a conscious decision (RQ 1);
- to what extent the interviewees thought the intended target groups would have difficulty understanding the English or Dutch used in these ads, and to what extent they had tested this (RQ 2);
- what reasons the interviewees had for using English or Dutch in these ads (RQ 3). With respect to RQ 3, there were two subsidiary aims. The first was to discover whether the findings from the interviews would support the adequacy of the model in Chapter 1.3.6 in terms of the *symbolic* and *non-symbolic* reasons it distinguishes for the use of English (RQ 3a and 3b). The second subsidiary aim was to discover whether the interview findings would support the adequacy of the model in terms of the *entities* it states that reasons can refer to (RQ 3c and 3d).

In the following sections, the findings for each of these research questions are discussed, compared with literature and with the model of the use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands: RQ 1 in Section 5.4.1; RQ 2 in 5.4.2; RQs 3a and 3b in 5.4.3 and RQs 3c and 3d in 5.4.4. Section 5.4.5 discusses the reasons given by the interviewees that were not mentioned in the literature. The limitations of the interview study are discussed in Section 5.4.6, and suggestions for further research are presented in 5.4.7.

5.4.1. The use of English or Dutch in job ads as a conscious decision (RQ 1)

The vast majority of the interviewees said their decision to place an all-English, partly English or all-Dutch job advertisement had been a conscious one. Other respondents, while stating that their use of English or Dutch had not been the result of conscious decision making, nevertheless mentioned certain reasons to do with the situation in which they found themselves which motivated their language use. Thus the use of English and Dutch was not random, but was either the result of a conscious decision, which presupposes interviewees' deliberate consideration of reasons for language use, or was attributable to reasons which interviewees can pinpoint.

While no earlier studies had provided information on whether makers of job ads use English consciously, the findings of the current study are in line with research done among German makers of product ads which provides evidence about their conscious use of English (Fink et al., 1995, p. 230).

In terms of the model of the role of English in job advertisements as set out in Section 1.3.6, the findings of the interview study regarding the consciousness of the use of English or Dutch indicate that reasons informing such use indeed play an important role on the sender side. The findings suggest that a distinction should be made in the model between reasons which play a part in the conscious language use of makers of job ads and those reasons which influence their decisions unconsciously. The adaptation that needs to be made is that there are *conscious* symbolic and non-symbolic reasons as well as *unconscious* ones. In Chapter 8.3.6, a new model will be presented incorporating this adaptation.

5.4.2 The assumed comprehensibility of the all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job ads for their target groups (RQ 2)

According to the majority of the respondents, the all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job advertisements they had placed would pose no comprehension problems for these ads' target groups.

The remarks about the comprehensibility of the all-English ads and of the English terms in otherwise Dutch ads are in line with claims by Dutch

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advertising agencies that understanding English in all-English and partly English product advertising would be no problem for Dutch people (Gerritsen et al., 2000). They are also in agreement with remarks in Timmerman (1992, pp. 165-166) and Watts (2002, pp. 118-119) as discussed in Chapter 3.3.1, which imply that English terms used in job ads in EFL countries are expected to be clear to the specialist target groups at which they are aimed. They are contrary to the doubts about the comprehensibility of English terms in Dutch job ads which were expressed by Jansen (2006) and Kuiper (2007), also discussed in Chapter 3.3.1. However, these do not take into account the expertise of members of the ads' target group.

At the same time, a number of the interviewees also indicated that they had not *tested* whether the target group understood the ads they had placed. This finding parallels the findings from interviews with and surveys of makers of product advertisements in Germany showing that consumers' comprehension of English terms was usually not tested (Fink et al., 1995, pp. 214, 230; König, 1974, as cited in Viereck, 1980, p. 252; Wetzler, 2006, pp. 303-304). As was discussed in Chapter 1.3, research into product advertising has shown that the comprehension of second-language promotional web sites and of second-language product ads is worse than that of their first-language equivalents (Dasselaar et al., 2005; Petrof, 1990).

In terms of the model set out in Chapter 1.3.6, the finding that the majority of interviewees thought that their use of English or Dutch would not cause comprehension problems for the ads' target groups indicates that comprehensibility is a reason for language use on the sender side. English or Dutch is used when its comprehensibility is perceived as not posing a problem. Thus, comprehensibility issues would seem to fall into a category of non-symbolic reasons.

The discrepancy between the positive views of the comprehensibility of English in job ads on the part of their makers, on the one hand, and the more negative evaluation of its comprehensibility as expressed by Jansen (2006) and Kuiper (2007) and as shown by the findings of experiments into product ads, on the other hand, further stress the need to investigate the comprehensibility of English in job ads through experiments, which was also argued in Chapter 4.3 on the basis of the literature. This is particularly important in view of the positive connection found between ad

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comprehension and attitude to the ad (Hornikx & Starren, 2006; Hornikx et al., 2010), as set out in the theoretical model (see Chapter 1.3.4).

5.4.3 Symbolic reasons and non-symbolic reasons given by Dutch makers of job ads for using or not using English (RQs 3a and 3b)

It was found that the reasons the interviewees gave for placing an all-English, partly English, and all-Dutch advertisement were *both symbolic and non-symbolic*. Symbolic reasons involved suggesting qualities that were not explicitly stated nor could objectively observable and non-symbolic reasons could be linked to aspects that were objectively observable in the advertisements or in the world outside the advertisements.

It is worth noting that when it comes to symbolic reasons, interviewees never said that the all-English job ads and the English words in their otherwise Dutch job ads expressed characteristics of *particular* countries where English is the first language, such as Great Britain and the United States. This suggests that the symbolic meanings of English in these ads are linked to the role of English as an *international language*. This is in agreement with claims about the largely non-country-specific associations evoked by English in product advertising by Cheshire and Moser (1994), Hornikx and Starren (2006), Kelly-Holmes (2000, 2005), Martin (2006), and Piller (2001, 2003), as was discussed in Chapter 1.3.

The interviews provide some indication that non-symbolic reasons were more important than symbolic reasons. As was shown in the presentation of dominant reasons for all three types of ads (see Sections 5.3.3.1, 5.3.3.2, 5.3.3.3 and Tables 5.11 and 5.12), non-symbolic reasons were mentioned by a majority of interviewees more often than symbolic reasons. This contrasts with observations that English and other foreign languages in product advertising are primarily used for symbolic reasons (Kelly-Holmes, 2000, p. 71; Takashi, 1990, p. 329, as discussed in Chapter 1.3.3).

In terms of the model, the interviews showed that both symbolic and non-symbolic reasons played a part in the sender's decision to use English or Dutch. It can be concluded that these two different types of reasons are not just the invention of scholars and observers, but are actually present in the minds of practitioners responsible for putting together job

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advertisements. This confirms the relevance of the distinction between symbolic and non-symbolic reasons on the sender side of the model as presented in Chapter 1.3.6. However, it may be necessary to add an indication of the relative weight of each type of reason. Since non-symbolic reasons were mentioned more often by a majority of interviewees, they may be more important for senders than symbolic reasons. In Chapter 8.3.6, a new model will be presented incorporating this adaptation.

5.4.4 Elements of the theoretical model of the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands referred to by makers of job ads (RQs 3c and 3d)

It was found that, taken together, the symbolic and non-symbolic reasons given by the interviewees for placing an all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job advertisement related to all the *entities* identified in the model: the *organisation* with the vacancy (sender); the *job* advertised; the *text* of the advertisement as a whole, and the *words* included in it (message); the ad's *target group* (receiver); the *sector* to which the organisation belonged, and *Dutch society* (context). This shows that these entities were concerns in the minds of the makers of the ads when using English or Dutch.

While the model is thus supported in a general sense, the findings also show that not all entities are equally relevant for all types of advertisement. Not all entities were mentioned in connection with both symbolic and non-symbolic reasons for each type of advertisement. However, there were a number of entities that all three types did have in common. For all three types, symbolic reasons were linked to *job*, and non-symbolic reasons to *organisation*, *words*, *target group*, and *sector*. It may, therefore, be concluded that across all three types, these entities were the more central concerns in relation to symbolic and non-symbolic reasons. This means that, for all three types of ad, language use was motivated by a desire to express characteristics of the job advertised (symbolic reasons), and was influenced by the language of communication in the organisation with the vacancy, by the language spoken by the target group, and by the language and terms that were common in the sector to which the organisation belonged (non-symbolic reasons).

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A number of entities were specific to one or two types of job advertisement. Unlike the other two types, the all-English ads were not motivated by symbolic reasons at word level or by non-symbolic reasons at text level. The partly English ads were different from the other two types in that they were motivated by text-related symbolic reasons and by non-symbolic reasons relating to Dutch society, and in that they were *not* motivated by organisation- or target-group-related symbolic reasons. Only the all-Dutch ads were motivated by non-symbolic reasons relating to the nature of the job. This indicates that some entities were relevant only for certain types of advertisement, but not for others. Different types of advertisements had different motivations in terms of the entities that were considered relevant to them. While there was no complete match between the entities posited in the model and the entities mentioned by the interviewees for each type of advertisement, these findings validate the model in that they show that it contains the entities that are in the minds of makers of job advertisements when choosing to place a particular type of advertisement rather than another.

It would seem possible to offer some suggestions as to why certain reasons were relevant to a particular type of ad and not to other types. Unlike the other two types of ad, the *all-English* ads were not motivated by a symbolic reason at word level, i.e. by words in one language sounding better than in the other language. English words in all-English ads may not be thought of as having this effect, because they do not stand out from the rest of the text, and therefore they are not conspicuous. In a partly English ad, on the other hand, the English words are likely to be thought of as having this effect because they do stand out, since the rest of the text is Dutch. Like the maker of a partly English ad, the maker of an all-Dutch ad contrasts the sound of Dutch and English equivalent words. This suggests that the makers of both partly English and all-Dutch ads think of the ads as basically Dutch texts within which language variation at word level is possible, whereas an all-English ad is thought of as a homogeneous monolingual text unit. Unlike the partly English and all-Dutch ads, the all-English ads were not motivated by non-symbolic reasons at text level, such as the desire to attract attention, to enhance comprehensibility and to achieve language consistency. This again suggests that both partly English and all-Dutch ads are thought of as basically Dutch texts within which language variation is possible to create

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certain effects, while an all-English ad is thought of as a homogeneous monolingual unit.

The observation that only *partly English* ads made the text more attractive (a text-related symbolic reason) may be due to the idea that a mix of languages makes a text more varied. Unlike all-English and all-Dutch ads, partly English ads were not motivated by organisation- and target-group-related symbolic reasons. This suggests that the partly English (mixed-language) ad is considered to be the default, unmarked version of the ad, whereas both the all-English and all-Dutch (mono-lingual) versions are considered marked, sending out a signal about the organisation and the target group. The partly English ads were also different from the other two types in that they were motivated by non-symbolic reasons relating to Dutch society, i.e. to English terms being common in Dutch society. This is in line with the notion of partly English ads being the default version.

Only the *all-Dutch* ads were motivated by a non-symbolic reason relating to the nature of the job. The makers of the job ads concerned said they placed an all-Dutch ad because the job advertised was based in the Netherlands or focussed on the Netherlands. In this case, it seems difficult to think of an underlying reason that explains why this kind of argument was only given to motivate the use of all-Dutch ads. It would seem equally possible to motivate the use of an all-English ad by pointing out that the job advertised was an international one, just as the fact that the organisation was Dutch or international was mentioned as a reason for placing an all-Dutch or an all-English ad, respectively.

In general terms, the current interview findings show that it is possible to link the reasons given by job ad makers to the entities identified in the model. This is an addition to the existing literature about English in job and product advertising, which has not made an explicit link between reasons for the use of English and the entities to which they refer. The current findings are in line with the analysis in Chapter 3, which linked the entities in the model to the reasons expressed in published views on English in job advertising in the Netherlands and other European EFL countries.

The implications of the interview findings for the model in Chapter 1.3.6 are the following. They validate the model by showing that all the entities included in the model were indeed mentioned in the reasons for the use of English or Dutch given by the interviewees: sender (organisation);

message (job, text, words); receiver (target group); context (sector, Dutch society). The one exception was that the entity of context only figured in the *non-symbolic* reasons and not in the *symbolic* reasons mentioned. At the same time, the findings of the interviews suggest that one adaptation to the model is necessary. The entity of *message* should be subdivided into *words* and the *text* of the ad as a whole, since the interviewees referred to these as separate categories. In Chapter 8.3.6, a new model will be presented incorporating this adaptation.

5.4.5 Reasons given by the interviewees compared with reasons mentioned in the literature

The last two columns in Tables 5.11 and 5.12 show which of the symbolic and non-symbolic reasons given by interviewees had been discussed in earlier publications on English in job ads and product ads in EFL countries. In a number of cases, the reasons in the literature were not identical to those in the interviews, but they were related at a more abstract level. First of all, where the interviewees compared English and Dutch, some earlier publications compared English with another language, because they discussed the use of English in advertising in a country other than the Netherlands. Secondly, where the reasons mentioned by the interviewees referred to specific entities, the reasons in the literature might be more general (e.g. observing that English indicates modernity rather than the modern nature of the job advertised). Thirdly, a number of reasons given by the interviewees for the use of an all-Dutch job ad were the *counterparts* of reasons for using English cited in the literature, but they were not explicitly mentioned in the literature as reasons for avoiding English. For example, some authors observed that an all-English job ad signalled candidates should have a good command of English (Hilgendorf, 1996, p. 11; Hilgendorf & Martin, 2001, p. 225; Watts, 2002, p. 117), while interviewees said that they had placed an all-Dutch ad to signal the importance of good communication skills in Dutch. It may not be surprising that many reasons for avoiding English were not encountered in the literature, as there is far less literature on reasons for avoiding English than for using English, although a number of authors do criticise or advise against the use of English (Jansen, 2006; Kelly-Holmes, 2005; Kuiper, 2007; Peereboom, 1991;

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Schrauwens, 1997; Seitz, 2008; Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2003; Tiggeler & Doeve, n.d.).

Taking into account the similarities at a more abstract level between the reasons in the literature and in the interviews, Tables 5.11 and 5.12 show that over two thirds of the reasons given by the interviewees had already been mentioned in the literature about English in product ads and job ads, while less than one third were not found in the literature. The symbolic and non-symbolic reasons in both the interviews and the literature related to all the components identified in the model in section 1.3.6 (except that symbolic reasons relating to context were not mentioned in either the interviews or the literature): sender (organisation); message (job, text, words); receiver (target group); context (sector, Dutch society).

In what follows the reasons found in the interviews will first be compared with the reasons encountered in the literature on both product and job ads. Then they will be compared with the reasons encountered in the literature on product ads.

Symbolic reasons not found in literature about product and job ads

The following symbolic reasons were not found in the literature about product ads and job ads:

- The use of the all-English ad signals that the job involves work abroad (relates to message, job).
- The use of the all-English ad signals that knowledge of a language other than English (i.e. Dutch) is not required (relates to receiver).
- The use of the all-English ad signals that English is the required language of the application letter (relates to receiver).
- The use of the all-Dutch ad makes it more appealing to a down-to-earth target group (relates to receiver).

All these reasons would seem to involve considerations that could only occur to people who have an intimate knowledge of the job that is advertised and the intended target group. At the same time, the receiver-related reasons are all close to reasons that are mentioned in the literature.

The senders' perspective on using English or Dutch

The two signals relating to the receivers' language abilities are similar to the observations in the literature that all-English ads signal the necessity of good communication skills in English (Hilgendorf, 1996; Hilgendorf & Martin, 2001; Watts, 2002). The appeal of an all-Dutch ad to a down-to-earth target group may be seen as parallel to the observation that the use of English terms instead of Dutch terms in job ads is exaggerated (Peereboom, 1991; Tiggeler & Doeve, n.d.).

Non-symbolic reasons not found in literature about product and job ads

The following non-symbolic reasons were not found in the literature about English in product ads and job ads:

- An all-English ad was placed because its maker had a lack of time and therefore was not able to translate English material into Dutch (relates to sender).
- An all-English ad was placed because the source text was in English (relates to sender).
- An all-English ad was placed because the decision maker in the organisation could read English but not Dutch (relates to sender).
- An all-English ad was placed because English was common in the sector in which the organisation operated (relates to context).
- An all-English ad was placed because all-English ads were common in the sector in which the organisation operated (relates to context).
- An English term was used in a largely Dutch ad because the concept and the term originated from an English-speaking country (relates to message, words).
- An all-Dutch ad was made for language consistency reasons, as its maker wanted to use Dutch throughout rather than a mix of English and Dutch terms (relates to message, text).
- Dutch terms were used instead of English terms in an all-Dutch ad because they were considered to be more comprehensible to a secondary target group (relates to receiver).

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All these reasons would seem to involve considerations that could only occur to people who are actually involved in writing the ad (lack of time, English source material, decision maker's linguistic ability, and language consistency in the ad) and who have an intimate knowledge of the possible readers of the ad (the lack of English skills of the part of secondary target groups) and the linguistic practices in the sector in which the organisation operates (the use of English as language of communication and the use of all-English ads). Again, like the symbolic reasons discussed above, they thus depend on insider's knowledge.

Symbolic reasons not found in literature on product ads

The following symbolic reasons were not found in the literature on product ads:

- The use of an all-English ad signals that English is the language of communication in the organisation (relates to sender, organisation; job-ad-specific reason).
- The use of an all-English ad signals that the job involves work abroad (relates to message, job; job-ad-specific reason).
- The use of an all-English ad signals that knowledge of a language other than English (i.e., Dutch) is not required (relates to receiver; job-ad-specific reason).
- The use of an all-English ad signals that English is the required language of the application letter (relates to receiver; job-ad-specific reason).
- The use of an all-English ad and an all-Dutch ad respectively signal that good communication skills in English or Dutch are required (relates to receiver, target group; job-ad-specific reason).
- An all-Dutch ad is placed because Dutch words are not exaggerated while the English equivalents would be (relates to message, words).
- The use of Dutch in an all-Dutch ad makes the ad more appealing to a down-to-earth target group (relates to receiver; reason not found in job ad literature either).

The senders' perspective on using English or Dutch

A number of these reasons are specific to job advertisements, and therefore it is logical that they are not discussed in literature about English in product ads. These reasons relate to language use as signals of characteristics of the organisation that are not relevant to consumers but only to employees, as signals of characteristics of the job that is advertised, and as signals of requirements that the applicant should meet. One of the remaining reasons (namely that the use of the all-Dutch ad makes it more appealing to a down-to-earth target group) was not found in the literature on English in job ads either. As was pointed out earlier in this section, this would seem to involve a consideration that could only occur to someone with insider's knowledge.

Finally, one reason (i.e. that Dutch terms are not exaggerated while English equivalents would be) was not found in literature on English product ads, although there seems to be no principled reason why it could not relate to product ads.

Non-symbolic reasons not found in literature on product ads

The following non-symbolic reasons were not found in the literature on product ads:

- A number of all-English and partly English ads on the one hand, and all-Dutch ads on the other, were placed because English and Dutch respectively was the language of communication in the organisation (relates to sender, organisation; job-ad-specific reason).
- An all-English ad was placed because its maker had a lack of time and therefore was not able to translate English material into Dutch (relates to sender; reason not found in job ad literature either).
- An all-English ad was placed because the source text was in English (relates to sender; reason not found in job ad literature either).
- An all-English ad was placed because the decision maker could read English but not Dutch (relates to sender; reason not found in job ad literature either).

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- An all-English ad was placed because English was common in the sector in which the organisation operated (relates to context; reason not found in job ad literature either).
- An all-English ad was placed because all-English ads were common in the sector in which the organisation operated (relates to context; reason not found in job ad literature either).
- English terms were used in partly English ads, because these terms were common in international branches of the organisation (relates to sender, organisation).
- An English term was used in a largely Dutch ad because the concept and the term originated from an English-speaking country (relates to message, words; reason not found in job ad literature either).
- An English job title was used in a largely Dutch ad because it was gender neutral unlike potential Dutch equivalents (relates to message, words; job-ad-specific reason).
- An all-Dutch ad was placed because the job was based in the Netherlands and focused on the Netherlands (relates to message, job; job-ad-specific reason).
- An all-Dutch ad was made for language-consistency reasons, as its maker wanted to use Dutch throughout rather than a mix of English and Dutch terms (relates to message, text; reason not found in job ad literature either).
- Dutch terms were used in an all-Dutch ad because they were clearer and more comprehensible than equivalent English terms would be (relates to message, words).
- Dutch terms were used instead of English terms in an all-Dutch ad because they were considered to be comprehensible to a secondary target group (relates to receiver; reason not found in job ad literature either).

As with symbolic reasons, some of these non-symbolic reasons are specific to job advertisements, and therefore it is logical that they were not found in literature about English in product ads. These reasons relate to a characteristic of the organisation that is not relevant to consumers but only to (future) employees (i.e. the language of communication in the organisation), to a characteristic of a job title, and to characteristics of the job

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advertised. There was one reason for the use of English terms (i.e. that such terms were common in international branches of the organisation) which might also apply to product ads and is not inherently specific to job ads. This may not have been mentioned by writers about English in product ads because it does not seem relevant to a product ad's target audience, i.e. potential consumers of the products or services that are advertised. The majority of the non-symbolic reasons that were not found in the literature about English in product ads were not found in literature about English in job ads either. As was remarked earlier in this section, these would seem to involve considerations that could only occur to people who are actually involved in writing the ad and who have an intimate knowledge of the possible readers of the ad and the linguistic practices in the sector in which the organisation operates. Finally, one reason to avoid English words and use Dutch words instead (Dutch words are clearer and more comprehensible than English counterparts) was not found in literature on English in product ads, although there seems to be no principled reason why it could not relate to product ads, especially because clarity of the *text* is mentioned in the literature on product ads.

Conclusions: Confirmations and contributions

In conclusion, the interview findings confirm the relevance to job ad makers of reasons for using or avoiding English that had been discussed earlier by scholars and other writers. Where the interviews revealed reasons not found in literature, the findings add new insights to published knowledge. As was pointed in Chapter 1.3, the model was developed primarily on the basis of literature about English in *product advertisements* in EFL countries. The fact that its elements are validated by the findings from the interviews shows that it was legitimate to apply arguments about language use in product ads to language use in job ads. This is further underlined by the fact that there are also specific reasons from the literature about English in product advertisements which were mentioned in the interviews as reasons for using or avoiding English in job advertisements. At the same time, the interviewees also gave reasons that were not found in the literature on product advertisements. While some of these could equally well apply to product ads, a number of them would appear to be specific to job

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advertisements. These job-ad-specific reasons relate to characteristics of the organisation that are relevant to (future) employees, characteristics of the job and requirements of the applicant. This indicates that the reasons in the model can have genre-specific realisations. This is in line with the argument presented in Sections 1.3 and 4.1 that, while job advertisements and product ads are both promotional genres (Bhatia, 2004, p. 62; Hilgendorf & Martin, 2001, p. 218), they are also distinct genres with their own specific purposes and characteristic features.

The current study has made a number of advances compared to earlier interview and survey studies of the reasons that makers of *product ads* have for using English. To begin with, the range of advertisements studied was wider than in many of these previous studies, since the majority only investigated the views of makers of ads on English words in partly English ads. Like Martin (2006), the current study also investigated reasons makers of ads had for avoiding English and thus for using the first language of the country where the ads were published. Like Gerritsen et al. (2000), the current investigation took into account both partly English and all-English ads, but, unlike Gerritsen et al., it treated them as *separate* types of ad rather than as one category. Thus, the present study was the first which expressly investigated the reasons makers of ads in EFL countries give for placing all-English ads, partly English ads, and ads which were completely in the first language of the country where the ads appeared. The interview findings revealed that the use of the three types of ad was motivated by partially different considerations on the part of their makers. This shows that the decision to treat them as separate categories – inspired by a similar tripartite categorisation of product ads in EFL countries by Cheshire and Moser (1994, p. 455), Gerritsen (1995, p. 330) and Martin (2002, p. 385) – was justified and has yielded new insights. Secondly, unlike previous studies of reasons in both *product and job ads*, the current study attempted to link the reasons given to overarching categories (symbolic and non-symbolic) and to a set of entities to which these reasons referred. This has allowed an analysis of the motivations given for using or avoiding English at a more abstract level than that of individual reasons.

5.4.6 Limitations of the current interview study

This interview study has a number of limitations. These relate to the respondents who did and did not take part, to the information gathered and not gathered in the interviews, and to the way the interviews were analysed.

As was indicated in the Method section, a number of makers of job ads who were approached did not respond or declined to take part in the interviews. This may have led to participation bias (cf. Dunne et al., 1997). Those who did agree to take part may have done so because they were more interested in the topic and had stronger views on it than those who were not included in the final selection. This may, therefore, mean, for instance, that the views of those whose use of English or Dutch was less consciously motivated are not represented.

One problem with the information gathered from the interviews is that the interviewees were explicitly told that the purpose of the interviews was to study reasons for using and avoiding English in Dutch job advertising. This may have meant that they thought about motivations for doing so more carefully than they would have done in their actual daily practice. As a result, they may have put forward reasons that did not actually guide them in their day-to-day activities. Particularly, the fact that reasons given for the use of an all-Dutch ad were found to be counterparts of reasons for using an all-English or a partly English ad may be attributable to interviewees explicitly comparing their all-Dutch ads with the other two types because they knew that was what the interviewer was interested in. Such a comparison may therefore have been more explicit than it would have been in their daily activities.

Another reason why the interviews may not fully reflect the interviewees' motivations when they were actually drawing up the advertisements is that they talked about these reasons some time after they had made the ads. This may have led to post-hoc reflection and rationalisation, which may not reflect the actual reasons that guided their decisions as they made them. Odell et al. (1983, p. 228) also identify this problem, and counter it by observing that interviews to gather information about writing decisions cannot "obtain information about mental processes", but can "identify the kinds of world knowledge and expectations that informants bring to writing tasks". By recasting the contribution that can be

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made by discourse-based interviews in this way, Odell et al. present a realistic description of the insights such interviews have to offer.

A third problem with the interviews was to do with the questions that were not asked. With hindsight, it might have been useful to ask interviewees to indicate which of the reasons they mentioned were most important, so it would have been possible to rank the importance of various reasons, for instance to rank the importance of symbolic versus non-symbolic reasons. It was also not explicitly asked how the use of English or Dutch related to the aim of the job advertisement, i.e. to attract suitable candidates. Even though these are post-hoc evaluations, they would still provide insights on important aspects of considerations for using English or Dutch.

A final problem with the information gathered in the interviews was that it cannot be guaranteed that all possible reasons for the use of English or Dutch were uncovered. As was pointed out in Section 5.2.2, interviews were carried out until no new reasons for using or avoiding English were found. However, “asserting that saturation has been reached is a somewhat bold claim”, as Barbour (2008, p. 54) remarks about the saturation concept in qualitative research in general.

In addition to the problems with the interviews themselves, mentioned above, another limitation concerns the *analysis* of the interviews, which may have been influenced too strongly by the theoretical model the researcher employed to categorise the data. In general, any analysis of interviewee remarks is bound to be influenced by the biases and preconceptions of the researcher. As Seale, 1999, p. 23, points out, some philosophers of science, in fact, argue that “all observation is driven by pre-existing theories or values”. In the current study, this is particularly relevant to the analysis of the *reasons* given for the use or non-use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands. As was announced in the introduction to this chapter (Section 5.1), one of the aims of this study, as formulated in RQ 3, was to discover these reasons, and to see how they related to the theoretical model and the literature about this topic. This may have led to researcher bias in the sense that the reasons given by the interviewees were seen in terms of the theory and the model. The categorisation of the reasons was informed by the theoretical model in the division into symbolic versus non-symbolic reasons, and in the entities to which they related. The

categorisations were thus theory-driven, and were not allowed to “emerge” from the interviews, as is advocated in the grounded theory approach to qualitative research (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 12). In other words, a more deductive approach was used than advocated in grounded theory (for the use of deductive methods in qualitative research, see e.g. Hyde, 2000; Patton, 1990, pp. 46, 59, 194). However, the assumptions and patterns guiding the researcher's analysis were made explicit from the start, as is recommended in Patton (1990, p. 85) and Seale (1999, p. 163). Only by linking the interviewees' remarks to the theory and the model in the way described would it seem possible to use the interviewees' remarks to validate the model. At the same time, new reasons were found in the interviews that had not been identified in the literature or in the model. This shows that the researcher was not completely limited by what had already been described in the literature. The final categorisation was validated in three ways. First of all, it turned out to be possible to fit in all the reasons, including reasons that had not been described earlier. Secondly, as was described in the Method section (5.2.5), raters other than the researcher were found to agree to a large extent with the categorisation of reasons in terms of the model. Thirdly, as was also pointed out in Section 5.2.5, the final categorisation was validated through peer debriefing. Three of the researcher's colleagues who were familiar with the research area read a draft of the Results section and agreed with the analysis presented. For those who see the categorisations as too strongly theory-driven, it is also possible to look at the results independently of this categorisation and judge each reason on its own, since an attempt was made to present each individual reason as closely to the way it was formulated by the respondents, making use of quotations.

While an attempt was made to present the reasons in terms which were as close as possible to the interviewees' original formulations, including the use of quotations, it could also have been examined whether the interviewees themselves would recognise what they had said in how it was represented by the researcher, in order to validate the analysis through so-called “member checks” (see e.g. Baarda, et al., 2005, pp. 200, 286; Boeije, 2005, p. 153; Lincoln & Guba, 1985, pp. 314-316; Seale, 1999, pp. 61-72; Wester, 1991, p. 186). Such checks may, however, entail a number of problems, including the possibility that respondents do not understand the theoretical concepts used to describe their views, or are not sufficiently

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interested in the validation of the representation of their views to give accurate feedback (for a discussion of these and other problems involved in this kind of member validation, see Seale, pp. 63-67).

5.4.7 Suggestions for further research into the motivations of Dutch makers of job ads for using English or Dutch in job advertisements

On the basis of some of the limitations mentioned above, two directions for further research suggest themselves. The first is to observe makers of job ads when they put together job ads. As was pointed out, the interviews may have presented only post-hoc reasons. In order to gain insight into the motivations of makers of job advertisements for using or not using English as they draw up the ads, further research may involve asking them to think aloud while they are actually composing an ad (see Odell et al., 1983, pp. 231-235, for the usefulness and limitations of the composing-aloud method to investigate writers' thoughts). Another way of investigating the process of composing job ads and the possible role of English in this could be to observe makers of job ads as they carry out their daily activities. Secondly, in order to address the problem that the interviews have not revealed the relative importance of the various reasons as seen by the interviewees themselves, a quantitative survey could be carried out in which makers of job ads are asked to rank reasons for using or not-using English. While the findings from the current interview study have revealed possible reasons that motivate the use of English or Dutch in job advertisements in the Netherlands, they have also shown that not all reasons nor all the entities to which these reasons could refer were mentioned for all ads (see Sections 5.3.3.4. and 5.4.4 and Tables 5.11 and 5.12). The findings do not explain why in a certain case certain elements of the model were relevant, and others were not. In a survey, makers of job ads could, therefore, also be asked to indicate why certain reasons do or do not apply to the job ads they make.

Appendix 5.1: Positions of the interviewees and the sectors of the organisations for which they made the ads

Makers of the all-English (E) job advertisements

Interviewee Code	Position of interviewee and sector of organisation for which (s)he made the ad
E1	Recruiter/intermediary responsible for all-English ad for organisation in Transport sector
E2	Recruiter/intermediary responsible for all-English ad for organisation in Commercial Services sector, ICT
E3	Recruiter/intermediary responsible for all-English ad for organisation in Transport sector, shipping
E4	Member of personnel dept. responsible for all-English ad for organisation in Education sector, university
E5	Recruiter/intermediary responsible for all-English ad for organisation in Financial sector, bank
E6	Member of dept. where applicant would work, responsible for all-English ad for organisation in Financial sector, financial advice company
E7	Member of personnel dept. responsible for all-English ad for organisation in Financial sector, financial advice company
E8	Member of personnel dept. responsible for all-English ad for organisation in Industry sector, chemical industry
E9	Member of personnel dept. responsible for all-English ad for organisation in Industry sector, food industry
E10	Recruiter/intermediary responsible for all-English ad for organisation in Industry sector, medical industry

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Makers of the partly English (P) job advertisements

Interviewee Code	Position of interviewee and sector of organisation for which they made the ad
P1	Member of personnel dept. responsible for partly English ad for organisation in Communication sector, call centre
P2	Recruiter/intermediary responsible for partly English ad for organisation in Industry sector, chemical industry
P3	Member of dept. where applicant would work, responsible for partly English ad for organisation in Education sector, university
P4	Member of dept. where applicant would work, responsible for partly English ad for organisation in Education sector, university
P5	Recruiter/intermediary responsible for partly English ad for organisation in Health Care sector
P6	Head of Administration, responsible for partly English ad for organisation in Agriculture sector
P7	Member of personnel dept. responsible for partly English ad for organisation in Health Care sector
P8	Member of dept. where applicant would work, responsible for partly English ad for organisation in Other Services sector, recruiting agency
P9	General Manager responsible for partly English ad for organisation in Financial sector

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Makers of the all-Dutch (D) job advertisements

Interviewee Code	Position of interviewee and sector of organisation for which they made the ad
D1	Member of personnel dept., responsible for all-Dutch ad for organisation in Financial sector
D2	Company employee whose responsibilities include advertising, responsible for all-Dutch ad for organisation in Industry sector, textile industry
D3	Member of personnel dept., responsible for all-Dutch ad for organisation in Public Administration sector, city council
D4	Member of personnel dept., responsible for all-Dutch ad for organisation in Public Administration sector, city council
D5	Company employee whose responsibilities include personnel, responsible for all-Dutch ad for organisation in Commercial Services sector, housing association
D6	Member of personnel dept., responsible for all-Dutch ad for organisation in Building sector, road building
D7	Member of personnel dept., responsible for all-Dutch ad for organisation in Health care sector, social care organisation
D8	Member of personnel dept., responsible for all-Dutch ad for organisation in Health care sector, health care organisation

Appendix 5.2: Semi-structured interview schedule

Introduction

- Good morning / good afternoon.
- My name is Frank van Meurs of the Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen, the Netherlands
- Thank you very much for your cooperation.
- As you know, I research the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands.
- I would like to ask you some questions about reasons for using English [or not using English] in job ads, on the basis of the job ad for “[job title]” which you placed in [title of newspaper] of [date].
- I hope it’s not a problem for you if I tape the interview, so I can work out the information more easily.
- Naturally your anonymity is guaranteed.
- The interview will take approximately between half an hour and three quarters of an hour.
- I would like to start by asking some more general questions about your job advertisement for “[job title]” in [title of newspaper] of [date]. [Give interviewee copy of the advertisement].

1. General Questions

Your name:

Your position:

1. Who wrote the final version of the job advertisement? [no options were offered to the interviewee, but they were indicated in the interview scheme to allow the interviewer to quickly circle answer(s) given]
 - a. head of the department;
 - b. Managing Director;
 - c. member of the department;
 - d. recruitment and selection committee (future manager, someone in the personnel dept, someone who works in the department);
 - e. the employee who is leaving;
 - f. someone in the personnel department;

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- g. communication agency.
- 2. Who decided on the use of language / the language choice in the job advertisement? [no options were offered to the interviewee, but they were indicated in the interview scheme to allow the interviewer to quickly circle answer(s) given]
 - a. head of the department;
 - b. Managing Director;
 - c. member of the department;
 - d. recruitment and selection committee (future manager, someone in the personnel dept, someone who works in the department);
 - e. the employee who is leaving;
 - f. someone in the personnel department;
 - g. communication agency.
- 3. What is the main target group / are the main target groups of your job advertisement? [no options were offered to the interviewee, but they were indicated in the interview scheme to allow the interviewer to quickly circle answer(s) given]
 - a. potential applicants;
 - b. level of education;
 - c. experience;
 - d. nationality.
- 4. What were the aims of this job advertisement? [the interviewee was presented with the options below if they were not mentioned spontaneously]
 - a. Main aim: persuade potentially suitable candidates to apply for the vacancy:
 - i. But also: to discourage/dissuade too many non-suitable candidates, filter out candidates who may not be completely suitable.
 - b. Was filling the vacancy the only goal? Were there other things you wanted to achieve? Increasing people's awareness of your organisation, for instance? [no options were offered to the interviewee, but they were indicated in the interview scheme to allow the interviewer to quickly circle answer(s) given]
 - i. to bring the organisation to the attention of the general public;
 - ii. to create a good impression of the organisation.

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2A. Specific questions about the use of English in completely English advertisements

1. You placed a completely English advertisement. Was that a conscious decision?
2. Who took the decision to use English?
3. Why did you place a job ad which was completely in English?

Were there any other reasons?

[no options were offered to the interviewee, but they were indicated in the interview scheme to allow the interviewer to quickly circle answer(s) given]

- a. because the advertisement is used internationally, for instance in newspapers in other countries?
- b. because you're advertising an international position? What is an international position? A position involving work in countries outside the Netherlands? A position involving contact in other countries?
- c. because you're advertising a position in a country outside the Netherlands?
- d. because the candidates may be people who do not speak Dutch?
- e. because the target group is an international one? What does international mean? With many international contacts? Different nationalities?
- f. because the successful applicants will have to communicate a great deal in English? It signals that they will have to communicate a great deal in English.
- g. to serve as a filter. It scares off / filters out people who do not communicate very easily in English.
- h. because there were no Dutch equivalents for many of the terms you wanted to use?
- i. because it is common practice in the organisation? Why is it common practice?
- j. because it is common practice in the sector to which your organisation belongs? Why is it common practice?
- k. because it sounds good? In what sense does it sound good?
- l. because it gives the organisation / the position the intended image? Because it increases status/prestige? In what sense? For the position? For the organisation?
- m. because it makes the advertisement more attractive for the reader?

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- n. Do you use English to make the advertisement more persuasive? In what sense? Do you use other means to make the ad more persuasive? What means? How does the use of English compare to those other means? Is it equally important?
 - o. because a completely English advertisement attracts more attention than a Dutch ad, it stands out more?
 - p. Were there financial reasons for using English? Did it, for instance, save translation costs?
4. Checklist with possible reasons. Present these reasons if they have not been mentioned. In addition to the reasons you have just mentioned, in the literature I've read about the subject, other reasons are also mentioned for using English in job ads. I was wondering if these also apply to you.

It is said, for instance, that English is used because ...

What are your views about this? Is this also a factor for you? What do you think about this?

- a. because the advertisement is used internationally, for instance in newspapers in other countries?
- b. because you're advertising an international position? What is an international position? A position involving work in countries outside the Netherlands? A position involving contact in other countries?
- c. because you're advertising a position in a country outside the Netherlands?
- d. because the target group is an international one? What does international mean? With many international contacts? Different nationalities?
- e. because the candidates may be people who do not speak Dutch?
- f. because the successful applicants will have to communicate a great deal in English? It signals that they will have to communicate a great deal in English.
- g. to serve as a filter. It scares off / filters out people who do not communicate very easily in English.
- h. because there were no Dutch equivalents for many of the terms you wanted to use?
- i. because it is common practice in the organisation? Why is it common practice?
- j. because it is common practice in the sector to which your organisation belongs? Why is it common practice?
- k. because it sounds good? In what sense does it sound good?

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- l. because it gives the organisation / the position the intended image? Because it increases status/prestige? In what sense? For the position? For the organisation?
- m. because it makes the advertisement more attractive for the reader?
- n. Do you use English to make the advertisement more persuasive? In what sense? Do you use other means to make the ad more persuasive? What means? How does the use of English compare to those other means? Is it equally important?
- o. because a completely English advertisement attracts more attention than a Dutch ad, it stands out more?
- p. Were there financial reasons for using English? Did it, for instance, save translation costs?

5. Do you think the English used may result in comprehension problems? Do you test this?

6. Did you consider the use of Dutch instead of English? Did you consider the use of other languages? Turkish?

7. Do you only use a completely English ad for this specific position?
 - a. For what other positions?
 - b. Are there positions for which you would not use completely English ads? Which ones?

8. Does the use of a completely English ad depend on the target group you wish to reach?
 - a. Do you use English for a specific target group? What target group?
 - b. Would you avoid / not use English for other target groups? What target groups?

The senders' perspective on using English or Dutch

2B. Specific questions about the use of English in partly English job ads

1. You used English in your advertisement. Was that a conscious decision?
2. Who took the decision to use English?
3. Why did you use English in this job advertisement?

Were there any other reasons?

[no options were offered to the interviewee, but they were indicated in the interview scheme to allow the interviewer to quickly circle answer(s) given]

- a. because there is no Dutch equivalent?
 - b. because it is shorter?
 - c. because it is common practice in the organisation? Why is it common practice?
 - d. because it is common practice in the sector to which your organisation belongs? Why is it common practice?
 - e. because the word/phrase is used internationally, for instance in branches in other countries?
 - f. because the target group is an international one? What does international mean? With many international contacts? Different nationalities?
 - g. because it sounds good? In what sense does it sound good?
 - h. because it gives the organisation / the position the intended image? Because it increases status/prestige? In what sense? For the position? For the organisation?
 - i. because it makes the advertisement more attractive for the reader?
 - j. because it attracts more attention than Dutch, it stands out more?
 - k. Do you use English to make the advertisement more persuasive? In what sense? Do you use other means to make the ad more persuasive? What means? How does the use of English compare to those other means? Is it equally important?
 - l. Were there financial reasons for using English? Did it, for instance, save translation costs?
4. Checklist with possible reasons. Present these reasons if they have not been mentioned. In addition to the reasons you have just mentioned, in the literature I've read about the subject, other

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reasons are also mentioned for using English in job ads. I was wondering if these also apply to you.

It is said, for instance, that English is used because ...

What are your views about this? Is this also a factor for you? What do you think about this?

Because there is no Dutch equivalent?

- a. because it is shorter?
 - b. because it is common practice in the organisation? Why is it common practice?
 - c. because it is common practice in the sector to which the organisation belongs? Why is it common practice?
 - d. because the word/phrase is used internationally, for instance in branches in other countries?
 - e. because the target group is an international one? What does international mean? With many international contacts? Different nationalities?
 - f. because it sounds good? In what sense does it sound good?
 - g. because it gives the organisation / the position the intended image? Because it increases status/prestige? In what sense? For the position? For the organisation?
 - h. because it makes the advertisement more attractive for the reader?
 - i. because it attracts more attention than Dutch, it stands out more?
 - j. Do you use English to make the advertisement more persuasive? In what sense? Do you use other means to make the ad more persuasive? What means? How does the use of English compare to those other means? Is it equally important?
 - k. Were there financial reasons for using English? Did it, for instance, save translation costs?
5. Do you think the English used may result in comprehension problems? Do you test this?
 6. Did you consider the use of English instead of Dutch?
 7. Do you only use English for this specific position?
 - a. For what other positions?
 - b. Are there positions for which you would not use English? Which ones?
 8. Does the use of English depend on the target group you wish to reach?
 - a. Do you English for a specific target group? What target group?

The senders' perspective on using English or Dutch

- b. Would you avoid / not use English for other target groups? What target groups?
- 9. Questions about reasons for the use of a number of specific English terms in the ad instead of possible Dutch alternatives.

I've looked at the ad, and I wondered whether certain things could not have been in Dutch. Could I present these to you, and ask you to comment on them?

Read English term/phrase. That could have been [Dutch equivalent]. Why did you use the English term/phrase? / Why didn't you use the Dutch equivalent?

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2C. Specific questions about the use of Dutch in completely Dutch job advertisements

1. You placed a job advertisement which was completely in Dutch. Was that a conscious decision?
2. Who took that decision?
3. Why is the job ad completely in Dutch? / Why did you place a job ad which is completely in Dutch?

Were there any other reasons?

[no options were offered to the interviewee, but they were indicated in the interview scheme to allow the interviewer to quickly circle answer(s) given]

- a. because the advertisement is only used in the Netherlands?
- b. because you're trying to find candidates for a non-international position? What is a non-international position? One which does not involve work in the Netherlands? One which does not involve contacts in countries outside the Netherlands.
- c. because you're trying to find candidates for a position in the Netherlands?
- d. because the target group is Dutch / speaks Dutch?
- e. because for many terms, the Dutch term suffices?
- f. because it is common practice in the organisation? Why is it common practice?
- g. because it is common practice in the sector to which your organisation belongs? Why is it common practice?
- h. because it sounds good? In what sense does it sound good? / Because it is more beautiful? In what sense is it more beautiful?
- i. because it gives the organisation/ the position the intended image? Because it increases status/prestige? In what sense? For the position? For the organisation?
 - a. Because the use of English would be pedantic, exaggerated?
- j. because it makes the advertisement more attractive for the reader?
- k. because it attracts more attention than Dutch, it stands out more?
- l. Do you use Dutch to make the advertisement more persuasive? In what sense? Do you use other means to make the ad more persuasive? What means? How does the use of Dutch compare to those other means? Is it equally important?
- m. to prevent comprehension problems?

The senders' perspective on using English or Dutch

- n. Were there financial reasons for using English? Did it, for instance, save translation costs?
- 4. Checklist with possible reasons. Present these reasons if they have not been mentioned. In addition to the reasons you have just mentioned, in the literature I've read about the subject, other reasons are also mentioned for using Dutch in job ads. I was wondering if these also apply to you.
It is said, for instance, that Dutch is used because ...

What are your views about this? Is this also a factor for you? What do you think about this?

- a. because the advertisement is only used in the Netherlands?
- b. because you're trying to find candidates for a non-international position? What is a non-international position? One which does not involve work in the Netherlands? One which does not involve contacts in countries outside the Netherlands.
- c. because you're trying to find candidates for a position in the Netherlands?
- d. because the target group is Dutch / speaks Dutch?
- e. because for many terms, the Dutch term suffices?
- f. because it is common practice in the organisation? Why is it common practice?
- g. because it is common practice in the sector to which your organisation belongs? Why is it common practice?
- h. because it sounds good? In what sense does it sound good? / Because it is more beautiful? In what sense is it more beautiful?
- i. because it gives the organisation / the position the intended image? Because it increases status/prestige? In what sense? For the position? For the organisation?
 - a. because the use of English would be pedantic, exaggerated?
- j. because it makes the advertisement more attractive for the reader?
- k. because it attracts more attention than Dutch, it stands out more?
- l. Do you use Dutch to make the advertisement more persuasive? In what sense? Do you use other means to make the ad more persuasive? What means? How does the use of Dutch compare to those other means? Is it equally important?
- m. to prevent comprehension problems?
- n. Were there financial reasons for using Dutch? Did it, for instance, save translation costs?

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5. Do you think the Dutch used may result in comprehension problems? Do you test this?
6. Did you consider using another language instead of Dutch? For instance, Turkish, English?
7. Do you only use Dutch for this specific position?
 - a. For what other positions?
 - b. Are there positions for which you would not use Dutch? Which ones?
 1. Are there positions for which you would use a completely English ad? Which ones?
 2. Are there positions for which you would use English terms in an otherwise Dutch ad? Which ones?
8. Does the use of Dutch depend on the target group you wish to reach?
 - a. Do you use Dutch for a specific target group? What target group?
 - b. Would you avoid / not use Dutch for other target groups? What target groups?
 - c. Are there target groups for which you would use a completely English ad? Which ones?
 - d. Are there target groups for which you would use English terms in an otherwise Dutch ad? Which ones?
9. Questions about reasons for the use of a number of specific Dutch terms in the ad instead of possible English alternatives.

I've looked at the ad, and I wondered whether certain things could not have been in English. Could I present these to you, and ask you to comment on them?

Read Dutch term/phrase. That could have been [English equivalent]. Why did you use the Dutch term/phrase? / Why didn't you use the English equivalent?

The senders' perspective on using English or Dutch

3. Questions about the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands in general

- a. Do you have the impression that in general completely English job ads are frequently published in the Netherlands?
- b. Why do you think that is?
- c. Do you have the impression that generally English is used frequently in Dutch job ads?
- d. Why do you think that is?

4. Open question about aspects that have not been discussed yet

- a. Do you have any comments about language use in job ads that we haven't discussed yet? Particularly about the use of English?

5. Thank you very much for your cooperation

- Thank you very much for your cooperation
- If you're interested in the findings of my research, I will be very happy to keep you informed.

Chapter 6 – The actual use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands and factors on which it depends: Corpus analyses of job ad messages

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents two corpus analyses of the extent to which English is used in job advertisements in the Netherlands, and of factors on which this depends. As was pointed out in Chapter 4.2, there have been incidental observations about the frequency with which English words are used in Dutch job ads (Jansen, 2006, p. 7; Nortier, 2009, p. 24; Renkema et al., 2001, p. 257; Schreiner, 1990, p. 7), but there has only been one empirical quantitative study, which specifically investigated English gender-neutral job titles in job ad headings (Gerritsen, 2001, pp. 107-108; Gerritsen, 2002, pp. 102-103). Chapter 4.2 also identified a number of factors that may determine the extent to which English is used in job advertisements in the Netherlands. These factors were based on incidental observations about English in job ads in EFL countries, on some empirical quantitative studies of English in product ads in EFL countries, and on incidental observations and empirical quantitative research relating to English in the Netherlands in general. However, no empirical quantitative work has been published on factors determining the extent to which English is used in job ads in the Netherlands, or indeed in any EFL country.

To fill these gaps, the aim of the research presented in this chapter is to quantify the extent to which English is used in job ads in the Netherlands, and the impact of factors that may determine this extent. This was done through an analysis of job advertisements published in the national daily newspaper *de Volkskrant* and on the Internet job site Monsterboard. As was discussed in Chapter 4.2, the research questions and sub-questions for these corpus analyses were:

RQ 4: To what extent is English used in job advertisements in the Netherlands?

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- RQ 4a: What proportion of job advertisements contains English?
- RQ 4b: What proportion of job advertisements is completely in English?
- RQ 4c: What proportion of job advertisements is partly in English?
- RQ 4d: What proportion of words in partly English ads is in English?

- RQ 5: What factors can be shown to determine the extent to which English is used in job advertisements in the Netherlands?
- RQ 5a: To what extent does the proportion of English used in job advertisements depend on the multinational as opposed to domestic status of the organisations advertising the vacancy?
- RQ 5b: To what extent does the proportion of English used in job advertisements depend on the economic sector of the organisation with the job vacancy?
- RQ 5c: To what extent does the proportion of English used in job advertisements depend on the educational level required for the position that is advertised?
- RQ 5d: To what extent are there differences in the proportion of English used in the various parts of partly English job advertisements?
- RQ 5e: What proportion of English words used in job advertisements have Dutch translation equivalents?
- RQ 5f: What proportion of English words used in job advertisements are expected to be relatively easy to understand for Dutch readers with a basic knowledge of English, because they have Dutch cognates and/or are among the most frequent words in the English language?

The research questions were motivated in Chapter 4.2 on the basis of literature. In addition, the interviews reported in Chapter 5 indicated the relevance to job ad makers of four of the six factors investigated:

- multinational status (RQ 5a). Some job ad makers said they placed all-English ads because the organisation was international (Chapter 5.3.3.1), and others that they used English terms in otherwise Dutch job ads because such terms were in use in international branches of their organisation (Chapter 5.3.3.2).

Corpus analyses of job ad messages

- sector (RQ 5b). Some interviewees said they placed all-English ads because English was commonly used as a language of communication in the sector in which their organisation operated and because all-English ads were common in their sector (Chapter 5.3.3.1). Others indicated that they used English terms in otherwise Dutch job ads because these terms were common in the organisation's sector (Chapter 5.3.3.2).
- the presence or absence of Dutch translation equivalents for the English terms used in the ads (RQ 5e). A reason given by a number of interviewees for using English terms in otherwise Dutch ads was that there were no Dutch equivalents for these terms (Chapter 5.3.3.2).
- the comprehensibility of the English terms used (RQ 5f). Many of those who had placed partly English job advertisements indicated that they did not think understanding the English terms used would be problematic for the target group (Chapter 5.3.2).

The *de Volkskrant* and Monsterboard corpus analyses were published previously as articles. Table 6.1 summarises to which research questions in these two studies the above-mentioned RQs 4 and 5 correspond, and to which components of the model of the role of English in job ads in the Netherlands (Chapter 1.3.6) they relate.

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Table 6.1. Research questions for the corpus analyses of English in job advertisements from *de Volkskrant* and Monsterboard reported in this chapter

RQs 4 and 5 of the dissertation as a whole	RQs in the <i>de Volkskrant</i> and Monsterboard corpus studies	Component of the model of the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands to which the RQ relates
<i>RQ 4: extent to which English is used in job ads</i>	RQ 1	
RQ 4a: proportion of job ads with English	RQ 1	
RQ 4b: proportion of all-English job ads	RQ 1	
RQ 4c: proportion of partly English job ads	RQ 1	
RQ 4d: proportion of English words in partly English job ads	RQ 1	
<i>RQ 5: factors that determine the extent to which English is used in job ads</i>	RQs 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	
RQ 5a: multinational vs. domestic status of the organisation	RQ 5	sender, organisation
RQ 5b: economic sector of the organisation	RQ 3	context
RQ 5c: educational level of the position	RQ 4	job ad message, job, receivers
RQ 5d: parts of job ad	RQ 2	job ad message
RQ 5e: proportion of English words with Dutch translation equivalents	RQ 7	job ad message
RQ 5f: proportion of easy English words, i.e. English words with Dutch cognates and/or high-frequency English words	RQ 6	job ad message

The motivation for using job advertisements from *de Volkskrant* and Monsterboard to investigate these research questions is that both are important media for Dutch labour market communication. A survey of the labour market orientation activities of approximately 16,000 respondents carried out between March and July 2008 found that, on average, the Saturday editions of *de Volkskrant* – the editions containing job ads – had the third largest reach (8.2%; NOA, 2008, p. 18) of the six national dailies included in the poll, and the Monsterboard reach was the second largest of

the 106 job sites included (12.9%; NOA, p. 21). The same survey also shows that both *de Volkskrant* and Monsterboard reach a larger proportion of highly educated Dutch people than do comparable media. The Saturday editions of *de Volkskrant* job ads reached a higher percentage of the approximately 7,000 highly educated respondents polled (17.7%) than did the Saturday editions of other Dutch national daily papers (NOA, p. 18), and www.monsterboard.nl reached a larger percentage of these respondents (15.7%) than did other Dutch job sites (NOA, p. 21). It was decided to focus the corpus analyses on media with a particularly large reach among a highly educated target group, because the results of these analyses were to serve as input for experiments that would test the effect of English in job ads on highly educated Dutch respondents (for a motivation of the decision to limit the target groups for the experiments to highly educated respondents, see Chapter 7.1).

This chapter will begin with an analysis of the use of English in job advertisements in *de Volkskrant* (Section 6.2) and then present a study of English in job ads on Monsterboard (Section 6.3). The reason for this order is that the *de Volkskrant* study was published earlier and is referred to in the Monsterboard study. The chapter will end with an overall conclusion (Section 6.4) in which RQs 4 and 5 are answered by taking the findings of the two studies together. Section 6.4 will also link these findings to the model of the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands, and discuss the contribution of the corpus analyses to research into English in job advertising and product advertising in EFL countries.

6.2 *De Volkskrant* corpus study. The use of English in job advertisements in a Dutch national newspaper: On what factors does it depend?¹²

Hubert Korzilius, Frank van Meurs and José Hermans

6.2.1 Introduction

'The sky is the limit', 'professional', 'Search & Selection', 'Leisure is our business', 'Office Manager'. In themselves, the words and phrases quoted here are not remarkable. What may be remarkable is that they were all found in job advertisements that were published in the Dutch national newspaper *de Volkskrant*. The use of English in Dutch job advertisements is one aspect of the use of English in countries where it is not the official language and more particularly of the use of English in advertising in non-English-speaking countries. Through a corpus analysis, this study aims to provide a systematic description of the English language use in job advertisements in the Netherlands and the factors on which this may depend.

Although numerous studies of the use of English in advertising for products and services in non-English-speaking countries have been published (see Piller, 2003, for an overview), little attention seems to have been paid to the use of English in recruitment advertising in these countries. Larson (1990) notes that the use of English is obvious in Swedish job advertisements, particularly in work areas and job titles, illustrating his point with examples but not with figures quantifying the spread of English. Hilgendorf (1996, pp. 10-11) gives a number of examples of the use of job

¹² This study was published as Korzilius, Van Meurs, and Hermans (2006), which is reprinted here with some modifications. Some formulations have been changed to make them clearer. New publications details have been added for publications which were listed as "in press" and "to appear" in the original article but which have now come out. For references to articles that are included in this dissertation, cross references to the chapters and sections concerned have been added between square brackets. An analysis of the proportion of English words that have Dutch translation equivalents has also been added. The references from the bibliography of the original article have been included in the list of references for the whole of this dissertation, which can be found on pp. 409-431.

titles “reflecting varying degrees of Englishization” from job advertisements for positions advertised in German in the German newspaper *Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung*. However, we are not aware of any quantitative analysis of the use of English in job advertisements in countries where English is neither a first nor an official second language. Kachru (1985, 1992) defines these countries as belonging to the ‘expanding circle’ of World Englishes. By studying the Dutch situation in this respect, we hope to provide materials and a methodology for similar studies in other countries, including a more explicit definition of what is to be regarded as English than is given in most of the studies we have seen (where such a definition is often not given at all).

Several authors have observed that English is widely used in various domains of Dutch society, including the media (see, for example, Berns, 1995; Claus & Taeldeman, 1989; De Bot, 1994; Gerritsen & Nickerson, 2004; Ridder, 1995; Van der Sijs, 1996). More specific figures are available for the use of English in business communication through the Dutch media, the type of communication to which job advertisements belong. Gerritsen (1995) shows that English was used on 19% of pages containing advertisements in Dutch newspapers and magazines published in 1994. In 2004, 64% of the advertisements in the glossy women’s magazine *Elle* included English (Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007). According to Gerritsen, Korzilius, Van Meurs and Gijsbers (2000), approximately one third of television commercials broadcast on Dutch television in 1996 contained English.

Although Schreiner (1990, p. 7) and Renkema, Vallen, and Hoeken (2001, p. 257) claim that English terms are used more and more frequently in Dutch job advertisements, no specific figures are available for this genre (see Van Meurs, Korzilius, & Den Hollander, 2006b [Chapter 7.3 below], for a discussion of the genre status of job advertisements, following the definition of genres from Yates & Orlikowski, 1992, p. 319, as “typified communicative actions invoked in recurrent situations and characterized by similar substance and form”). It seems important to analyze the genre of job advertisements, because job ads are the most commonly used means of recruiting personnel in the Netherlands. According to Van Dalen (1999, p. 42), who bases her figures on data from 1996, 30% of vacancies are filled by attracting applicants through job advertisements. The next two most effective means of filling vacancies mentioned by Van Dalen are uninvited

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applications (20%) and temping agencies (13%); other means include external relations, existing employees, and schools. We are only aware of one published study of one specific aspect of the use of English in job advertisements from Dutch newspapers. Gerritsen (2001) specifically compared the use of Dutch and English gender-neutral terms – such as ‘hoofd’ [head] and ‘engineer’ – in the headings of job advertisements published in 1989 and 1999. On the basis of an analysis of advertisements in the national daily *De Telegraaf* and the national weekly *Intermediair*, Gerritsen (2001) establishes a statistically significant increase in the number of English gender-neutral terms in Dutch job advertisement headings from 60% in 1989 to 81% in 1999.

The purpose of this article is to make a detailed study of the use of English in complete job advertisements in Dutch newspapers (not just headings), and of the factors on which this use may depend. The aspects we researched were based on considerations from the literature, especially literature on English in commercial advertising. First of all, we investigated how widespread the use of English in complete job ads actually is (cf. Gerritsen et al., 2000; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007) on Dutch commercial advertising). Secondly, we studied the frequency with which English is used in the various *parts* of job advertisements, inspired by the approach taken by Cheshire and Moser (1994, pp. 456-457) and Piller (2001, pp 161-162), who suggest that English is given more prominence when it is used in certain parts of advertisements for products and services, such as the headline and the signature line. Thirdly, since English in advertising is strongly associated with “the young, cosmopolitan business elite” (Piller, 2001, p. 180), and since interviews with advertising agencies revealed that they used English especially for “upper-middle and upper classes” and avoided it for lower-class and lower-middle class target groups “with little educational background” (Alm, 2003, p. 151), we tried to determine whether the amount of English that is used depends on the *level* of the position offered. Fourthly, since Cheshire and Moser (1994, pp. 459-463) find that English in advertising is associated with particular types of products, such as cigarettes and computers, we aimed to establish whether the amount of English depends on the *sector* of the organization offering the position. Fifthly, in view of Larson’s (1990) suggestion that multinational companies prefer English terms in job ads to native variants in order to

create consistency in the terms used by their branches in different countries, we analyzed whether there is a difference in the amount of English used between job ads from *organizations that only have branches in the Netherlands* and those from *organizations that also have branches in other countries*. Sixthly, we determined *what English words* are used and what the *level of difficulty* of these words might be, following the analysis in Cheshire and Moser, who conclude that only a minority of the English words in their sample of advertisements “seem likely to cause a real problem of understanding to a reader with a basic knowledge of English” (1994, p. 458). Finally, we studied what proportion of English words in the job ads had *Dutch translation equivalents*, inspired by the findings of earlier research showing that the use of English words in product ads was not always motivated by the fact that they fill lexical gaps in the first language of the country where the ads were published (Gerritsen et al., 2000, p. 20; Takashi, 1990, pp. 330-331).

Thus our research questions are the following:

1. How many Dutch job advertisements contain English?
2. In which parts of Dutch job advertisements is English used?
3. To what extent does the use of English in Dutch job advertisements depend on the sector of the organization that placed the advertisement?
4. For which job levels is English used in Dutch job advertisements?
5. To what extent does the use of English in Dutch job advertisements depend on the type of organization (multinational vs. Dutch mono-national)?
6. What English words are used most frequently in Dutch job advertisements and what is their potential level of difficulty for Dutch readers?
7. What proportion of the English words used in Dutch job advertisements have Dutch translation equivalents?

By answering these questions, we aimed to fill a gap in research into the Anglicization of Dutch business communication transmitted through the mass media.

6.2.2 Method

The corpus

The use of English was analyzed in 679 job advertisements published in four successive Saturday editions of the Dutch national daily *de Volkskrant* (4, 11, 18 and 25 August 2001). According to Van Dalen (1999, p. 47), *de Volkskrant* is the Dutch national daily newspaper whose job advertisements reach the largest percentage of highly educated people in the Netherlands (30%, according to figures from 1997). Only the weekly *Intermediair* reaches a larger percentage of highly educated people (47%), but these are from a more limited range of professional fields than those reached by *de Volkskrant*. This is because *Intermediair* does not cover the fields of education and health care (BOA Plus, 2003). Figures from the year 2000 indicate that the percentage of highly educated people reached by an average edition of *de Volkskrant* is 25%. The highest percentage, 41%, is reached by an average edition of *Intermediair* (BOA Extra, 2000).

The total number of job advertisements ($N = 679$) was studied in order to determine how many advertisements were completely in English. For more detailed analyses, a random selection of 120 job advertisements was made (18%, slightly more than one in six). This sample size results in a 95% level of confidence with a sampling error of plus or minus 8% (Korzilius, 2000, pp. 111-112).

Defining 'job advertisement'

All advertisements in which organizations asked for personnel were analyzed as job advertisements, except for so-called '1 in 3 mini's', small advertisements published simultaneously in three Dutch dailies. These are used for a variety of purposes, not only job offers, but also contact advertisements and advertisements for holidays and courses. Many of the job advertisements in '1 in 3 mini's' are not fully-fledged job advertisements (see below for the elements of a job advertisement) but are brief, consisting of no more than a reference to the type of work and contact data.

Our definition of a job advertisement centered on the job title. If in one advertisement more positions were offered at the same company, or if in one advertisement a recruitment agency advertised positions at several companies, each job title and all the information pertaining to the job described by that job title - including information that was relevant to that job as well as to the other jobs advertised by the company or the recruitment agency (such as contact information or a slogan) - was regarded as one job advertisement. If, for example, a recruitment agency or a company placed one general advertisement containing three different job titles, we analyzed this as three different job advertisements. Information which was not specific to one particular job but relevant to all the jobs described by the three different job titles was counted three times in our analysis. Our sample of 120 job advertisements included 18 cases where two or more advertisements were taken from the same, larger advertisement.

The two decisions we made in determining what we analyzed as a job advertisement are supported by the information published since October 2002 by *de Volkskrant* in lists of vacancies on offer in its Saturday editions (*'de Volkskrant banen'*), which present job titles in alphabetical order. Firstly, our decision to take a job title as the basis for our definition of a job advertisement is supported by the fact that these lists for *each* job title specify the organization offering the position and the newspaper section and the page where the advertisement appears. Secondly, the fact that these lists do not include vacancies advertised in the so-called '1 in 3 mini's' supports our decision not to analyze such ads.

On the basis of Van Dalen (1999, pp. 103-110), we distinguished the following elements of job advertisements:

- job title;
- job description: tasks and responsibilities;
- job requirements: the requirements an applicant should meet, for instance in terms of education and experience;
- headline ('kopregel'): serves to draw the reader's attention; it does not have to be at the very top of the ad, but it always has text in a large font;
- company information: information about the organization, but also about what the company offers (such as salary, fringe benefits, and

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working environment) and about the application procedure (such as contact information);

- end line (Van Dalen, 1999, uses the term ‘pay-off’): an expressive phrase at the end of the advertisement containing a message from the organization;
- logo;
- illustration.

Figure 6.1 on p. 231 shows an example of an advertisement containing many of these elements, taken from our corpus of the *de Volkskrant* job ads.

We chose to include information about what the company offers and about the application procedure under ‘company information’, even though these are three separate categories in Van Dalen (1999). This decision was made because all three categories contained information about the organization, which was not always easy to separate and was often presented in the same part of the text. The element ‘illustration and logo’ will not be discussed in the rest of this paper, because there were no illustrations and logos containing English.

Defining ‘word’ and ‘English’

In order to be able to determine how many English and Dutch words were used in our sample of job advertisements, we needed to define what a word is. For the purposes of this study, a word was defined as “a character or consecutive string of characters between spaces, or between a space and a punctuation mark” (cf. *Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary*, n.d.). For the decisions we took regarding word status in potentially problematic cases, see Appendix 6.1.

Wyeth is een Nederlandse dochteronderneming van American Home Products Corporation (AHP), een van 's werelds grootste innovatieve farmaceutische bedrijven. Divisies van AHP spelen wereldwijd een leidende rol op het gebied van recept- en vrij verkrijgbare geneesmiddelen, vaccins en veterinaire producten.

In Nederland is Wyeth als producent van receptgeneesmiddelen een belangrijke marktpartij op het gebied van CNS/psychiatrie, gynaecologie/woman's health, reumatologie en vaccins. In het ziekenhuis concentreert Wyeth zich op de voorgeschreven geneesmiddelen in de oncologie, hematologie en microbiologie.

Door de niet aflatende inspanning in ontwikkeling van nieuwe geneesmiddelen introduceren wij momenteel een reeks nieuwe producten die een gezonde groei van het bedrijf zullen waarborgen.

Onze cultuur is open, eerlijk, gericht op resultaat en stimuleert persoonlijke ontwikkeling. Onze samenwerking gebeurt op basis van wederzijds respect, zodat ambitieuze mensen volledig tot hun recht kunnen komen.

Met het oog op het op- en uitbouwen van extra service richting artsen, apothekers en patiënten op het gebied van de snel ontwikkelende vaccins markt zijn wij voor de medische afdeling op zoek naar een

Scientific Information Services Officer Vaccins M/V
(fulltime)

De functie
Deze functie biedt een ideale opstap voor een carrière in de farmaceutische industrie. Wyeth is in Nederland een middelgrote farmaceutische onderneming, waardoor alle afdelingen in nauwe samenwerking voor één resultaat kunnen werken. De Scientific Information Services Officer Vaccins zal, na een gedegen opleiding, het eerste aanspreekpunt zijn voor artsen, apothekers en patiënten voor vragen over de vaccins van Wyeth. In eerste instantie betreft het een tijdelijk dienstverband van 6 maanden.

Interesse?
Stuur dan uw sollicitatiebrief voorzien van motivatie en curriculum vitae binnen 14 dagen aan AHP Pharma B.V., ter attentie van onze Personnel Officer, mevrouw S.T. Klaassen, Postbus 255, 2130 AG Hoofddorp. Solliciteren via email kan ook: simone.klaassen@wyeth.nl. Nieuwsgierig? Bezoek onze internationale website: www.wyeth.com of bel 023-5672567.

Profiel
- Een voltooide opleiding tot arts, apotheker of (medisch-)bioloog; met gebleken belangstelling en/of ervaring in de immunologie;
- Het vermogen om complexe materie op een heldere wijze weer te geven, afgestemd op de geadresseerde;
- Actief kunnen luisteren;
- Affiniteit met een commerciële werkomgeving;
- Een echte teamplayer;
- Goede computervaardigheden in het algemeen en specifiek m.b.t. databases.

Wyeth, Postbus 255, 2130 AG Hoofddorp

WYETH

DIVISIES VAN AHP PHARMA B.V.

Figure 6.1. Example of a Dutch job advertisement (*de Volkskrant*, 18 August 2001, Science section, p. 5). Words which were regarded as English according to our definition are underlined. Explanation of numbers indicating elements of the job advertisement: 1 = company information; 2 = job requirements; 3 = job title; 4 = job description; 5 = logo.

In this study, we used a restrictive definition of English, in that we did not consider a word of English origin to be English if it had in some way become part of the Dutch language. To draw an analogy, in a study of French in US advertising, the word 'route' would not be regarded as French, even though it derives from French. When deciding whether an English word was English in a strict sense or had been Dutchified, we tried to apply criteria that could be objectively verified. Our criteria were the following:

- If a job advertisement was completely in English, that is, if all the words it contained could be found in an English dictionary and the

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grammar and syntax were English, all the words in the advertisement were considered to be English.

- Example. In a completely English advertisement, the noun 'water' was considered to be an English word, even though 'water' is also a Dutch noun.
- If a job advertisement was not completely in English, but partly or fully in Dutch, we basically considered a word English when it was found in an English dictionary or on an English website and did not occur in the latest edition of the authoritative dictionary of the Dutch language, the thirteenth edition of *Van Dale Groot woordenboek der Nederlandse taal* (Geerts, Den Boon, Geeraerts & Vos, 1999; henceforth Van Dale, 1999) and was not adapted to Dutch spelling or grammar conventions.

For a more detailed description of the procedure we followed to determine whether a word in not completely English job advertisements was English, see Appendix 6.2.¹³

Determining sector and job level of the positions advertised

In order to determine whether the frequency with which English was used depended on the type of organization that placed the job advertisement or on the type of position that was advertised, we classified the organizations and positions according to the official categories of the Dutch Bureau of Statistics (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, CBS):

- The classification by sector was based on the Standard Company Classification 1993 ('Standaard bedrijfsindeling 1993'; CBS, 1993).
- The categorization of positions was based on the Standard Job Classification 1992 ('Standaard beroepenclassificatie 1992'; CBS, 1992).

¹³ The term 'not completely English advertisements' is used to refer to ads that were not fully in English, but partly in English or completely in Dutch.

The Standard Company Classification categorizes economic activities at six different levels of abstraction, called sections, subsections, divisions, classes, and subclasses. To classify the organizations in our corpus, we used the highest level, that of the 17 sections, such as 'Manufacturing', 'Education', and 'Health and social work'. The CBS Standard Job Classification categorizes jobs at four different levels of abstraction: by job level, job class, job group, and individual job. To classify the positions in our corpus, we again used the highest level, i.e. the classification by job level, which indicates the educational level required (CBS, 2001, p. 8). This, for example, led to a distinction between medium- and higher-level jobs.

Defining mono-national and multinational organizations

When studying whether the use of English depended on whether or not the organizations were multinationals, we defined a particular organization as a multinational and not a Dutch mono-national organization if any of the following conditions applied:

- Dutch branches and branches in other countries were mentioned in the job advertisement that the organization had placed.
- Dutch branches and branches in other countries were mentioned on the organization's website.
- The organization was part of an organization whose website mentioned Dutch branches and branches in other countries.
- Websites for branches of the organization outside the Netherlands were found by changing the website's extension from '.nl' (the country code for the Netherlands) to '.com' or '.org'.

If none of these conditions were met and the organization's website only mentioned Dutch locations, we decided that the organization only had branches in the Netherlands and therefore was Dutch and mono-national.

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Determining the difficulty of the English words used in the corpus

Cheshire and Moser (1994, pp. 457-458) determined the potential difficulty of English words in Swiss advertisements aimed at Swiss readers by checking whether a word was included in a basic English dictionary for French learners and whether it “could be easily associated with either a French or German word”. If a word did not meet either of these criteria, they concluded that it seems “likely to cause a real problem of understanding to a reader with a basic knowledge of English”. Since no basic dictionary of English specifically aims at Dutch learners, we used the following three criteria to get an indication of the level of difficulty of the English words in our corpus of partly English job advertisements. A word was considered relatively easy if:

- its stem was among the words used in the ‘Defining Vocabulary’ of the *Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture* (Summers, 1998, pp. xviii-xxiii) whose target group are learners of English. The ‘Defining Vocabulary’ is a limited set of words that are used for all the definitions in the dictionary, and which are taken from lists of the most frequent English words;
- its stem was a word marked with four or five ‘black diamonds’ to indicate that it falls in the top two frequency bands in the *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary*, which also aims at learners of English. These words are among the most frequent words in the corpus on which the dictionary is based, and “account for 75% of all English usage” (Sinclair, 1995, p. xiii);
- a similar Dutch word (a cognate) could be found in the Dutch dictionary Van Dale (1999), such as ‘kwaliteit’ for ‘quality’. In this third category we also included words of English origin, such as ‘novelty’ (as a cognate for ‘novel’ in the sense of ‘new’). However, we did not regard the following types of cognates as helpful in interpreting the English words, and therefore did not categorize them as proper cognates:
 - words that were labeled ‘old-fashioned’ (such as ‘tegader’, a cognate for ‘together’);

- words that were too different in form to be recognized as cognates (such as 'ik', a cognate for 'I');
- words whose meaning was too different from that of the English cognate (such as 'gepeupel', a cognate for 'people');
- words that we considered infrequent and therefore not likely to be familiar to many readers of job advertisements (such as 'manufactuur', a cognate for 'manufacturing').

Determining whether the English words used in the corpus had Dutch translation equivalents

In order to determine whether the English words in the job advertisements had Dutch equivalents, we consulted the following English-Dutch translation dictionaries: Coenders, Demeerssman and Vermeer (2000), Schreiner (1990), Ten Bruggencate (2003), Van Amerongen (1989a), and Van Dale (1997). We also checked whether the Dutch translations we had found were used on Dutch websites. For this purpose, we used the Google search engine to search on sites with the extension '.nl'. for the Dutch word in the phrase in which the English word originally occurred.

The equivalence of the translations was evaluated by four judges, the second author of this article with three native speakers of Dutch who had studied English Language and Culture at a Dutch university. One of these judges taught English language proficiency in a Department of English Language and Culture at a Dutch university, the second judge had extensive English-Dutch translation experience, and the third worked as an ICT specialist in a commercial organisation.

The criteria for equivalence were that the Dutch translation should cover the propositional meaning of the English original in the context in which the English word occurred, and the translation should not be a descriptive phrase but roughly similar in length to the original and it should be actually used in the same context as the English word in Dutch texts. For instance, it was decided that there were equivalents for the English words 'netting' and 'agreements' in the phrase 'netting agreements', because this phrase could be translated as either 'vereffeningsovereenkomsten' or 'verrekeningsovereenkomsten', terms which were encountered on Dutch websites. It was decided that there was no equivalent for 'proactieve

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professional' [proactive professional], because the translation 'vakman' for 'professional' suggested in the dictionaries refers to someone who is good at a craft and the advertisement was not about crafts.

In the case of English words which occurred in names of organizations or their products, we applied an additional criterion. It was decided that an organization could only realistically translate names over which it had control, i.e. its own name and that of its products, and that it was not entitled to translate names of other organizations and their products. On the basis of this criterion, no translation could, for instance, be given for the English word 'frontier' in 'een Human Frontier Science Program project', because the organization who initiated this project, the Strasbourg-based Human Frontier Science Program Organization, was not the same as the university where the researcher would be working. An example of a name of an organization which could have chosen to use a Dutch name in an ad for the Dutch market was 'Biothane Systems International'. It could have opted to call itself 'Biothaan Systemen Internationaal'.

There were three categories of equivalence. An English word could have:

- a full Dutch equivalent (e.g. 'and' in 'aansturing van Market and Credit Analysten', which could have been translated as 'Markt- en kredietanalisten');
- no full Dutch equivalent (e.g. 'professional', as was discussed above);
- a Dutch equivalent in some contexts but not in others (e.g. 'Human' in 'Human Resource Management' could have been translated as 'personeelsbeheer', while in 'een Human Frontier Science Program project' it had no equivalent, because, as we have seen, this was the name of a program over which the organization placing the ad had no control).

Interrater reliability

Interrater reliability was determined by having two independent judges evaluate a random sample of 30 job advertisements from the set of 119 not-completely-English advertisements in our study. The degree of interrater reliability was defined in terms of the qualifications in Rietveld and Van Hout (1993, p. 221). For the nominal categories sector and level of the positions advertised, we calculated Cohen's kappa (κ). For the ratio variables numbers of words and numbers of English words, we calculated Pearson's correlation coefficient r .

For the classification by sector of the positions in our sample, we found a κ of .85 (qualification: almost perfect). For the classification by job level, we found a κ of .80 (qualification: substantial). In total, we calculated 14 correlations to determine interrater reliability for the number of words and the number of English words in the six elements we distinguished in the job advertisements and in the job advertisements as a whole. These correlations varied from .29 to 1.00; 12 of the 14 correlations were higher than .61 (qualification: substantial). Mean r of the 14 correlations was .76 (qualification: substantial).

Statistical analyses

We calculated frequencies, means and standard deviations. We also carried out inferential statistical tests. Since the dependent variables in this study, i.e. the number of English words in various job advertisement elements, were not normally distributed (determined by means of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test), these inferential statistical tests were non-parametric. To determine the difference between two independent groups we used the Mann-Whitney test, and when more independent groups were involved we used the Kruskal-Wallis test. We carried out the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test to determine the difference between two dependent samples. In order to analyze the relationship between variables, we calculated Spearman's correlation (r_s).

6.2.3 Results

How many job advertisements contain English?

Of the 679 job advertisements in our corpus, 2.4% (16 ads) were completely in English. Our sample of 120 job advertisements contained one completely English advertisement (313 words). On average, the 119 other advertisements from the sample were 328 words long ($SD = 110$, minimum 60, maximum 602). In 72 of these 119 advertisements (61%) not a single English word was used, while 47 (39%) contained one or more English words, 34 (29%) contained two or more English words, and 25 (21%) contained three or more English words.

The mean number of English words in the 119 not completely English job advertisements was 2.2 ($SD = 4.3$, minimum 0, maximum 17). The mean number of English words in the 47 partly English advertisements was 5.47 ($SD = 5.35$; minimum 1, maximum 17). The number of English words in the 119 not completely English advertisements did not correlate with the total number of words in these advertisements ($r_s = .05$, $p = .59$, $n = 119$), nor was there such a correlation in the 47 advertisements containing one or more English words ($r_s = -.12$, $p = .44$, $n = 47$). When an advertisement contained a relatively large number of words, this therefore did not automatically mean that it contained a relatively large number of English words.

In which parts of the job advertisement is English used?

Table 6.2 shows how often one or more English words were used in the various parts of the 119 not completely English job advertisements. English was most frequently used in the elements 'company information' and 'job description'.

Table 6.2. One or more English words in elements of not-completely-English job advertisements

Element	<i>n</i>	%	Example from job advertisement element, [English translation], (company name; number of English words)
Job title	13	11	<i>Technical Consultant ICT Security</i> (Njama; 2)
Job description	22	18	De <i>Risk</i> manager is er primair verantwoordelijk voor dat alle (commerciële) activiteiten in overeenstemming zijn met ' <i>Risk Management policy and Procedures</i> '. Deze hebben betrekking op wholesale- en retailactiviteiten [=The Risk manager is primarily responsible for all (commercial) activities being in agreement with ' <i>Risk Management policy and Procedures</i> '. These relate to wholesale and retail activities] (Delta Nutsbedrijven; 6)
Job requirements	16	13	<i>Hands-on professional</i> , die zich in een internationale setting kan manifesteren [=Hands-on professional, who can manifest him- or herself in an international setting] (Nestlé, Friskies; 2)
Headline	11	9	<i>Young Executive Recruitment</i> (YER recruitment agency; 3)
Company Information	26	22	Hewitt's motto is dan ook: ' <i>To excel, around the world, at helping our clients and their people succeed together</i> ' [Hewitt's motto, therefore, is: ' <i>To excel, around the world, at helping our clients and their people succeed together</i> '] (Hewitt; 14)
End line	15	13	Oplossingen in <i>legal & finance</i> [Solutions in legal & finance] (Eiffel; 2)
Total job ad	47	39	

Note. The column labeled '*n*' gives the number of advertisements with one or more English words in the element of the advertisement concerned. The column labeled '%' gives the percentage of this number out of the total of 119 not completely English advertisements. To illustrate the criteria used to determine whether a word is English or Dutch, the words in the examples that were considered to be English are printed in italics, and the number of these words is given in brackets after the company name.

Since not all elements of a job advertisement contain the same number of words, we calculated the percentage of the number of English words in a particular element out of the total number of words in that element of the advertisement (see Table 6.3). This expresses the concentration of the use of English in the various parts of the job advertisements. The mean percentage of the number of English words out of the total number of words in the 119 not completely English advertisements was 0.71% (*SD* = 1.41; minimum 0, maximum 5). The concentration of English was higher in the elements job title, headline and especially end line than it was in the other elements of the advertisements (due to limitations of

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space, we have omitted the results of the Wilcoxon Signed Rank tests we used to determine statistically significant differences).

Table 6.3. Concentration of English in not completely English job advertisements

Element	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i> English words	<i>M</i> total words	<i>M</i> %	<i>SD</i> %	Max. %
Job title	119	0.14	3.26	4.51	13.47	50
Job description	105	0.30	56.95	0.60	1.55	9
Job requirements	114	0.20	46.97	0.56	1.56	8
Headline	62	0.28	4.39	4.40	9.56	25
Company information	118	0.61	198.75	0.38	1.13	8
End line	40	0.63	1.99	33.00	45.64	100
Total job ad	119	2.16	328.08	0.71	1.40	17

Note. The column labeled '*n*' gives the number of job advertisements that contain the element concerned. The columns headed '%' contain descriptive statistics on the percentage of the number of English words in a particular element out of the total number of words in that element of the advertisement. The minimum percentage of English words in all elements is zero.

A significant correlation between the number of English words and the total number of words was only found for the elements headline and end line (headline: $r_s = .49$, $p < .001$, $n = 119$; end line: $r_s = .51$, $p < .001$, $n = 119$). This means that when the text length of these elements increased, the number of English words also increased.

In which sectors of the job market is English used?

The not completely English job advertisements in our sample were placed by organizations from a variety of sectors according to the Standard Company Classification of the Dutch Bureau of Statistics (CBS, 1993). Five sectors accounted for ten or more advertisements each. In total, 84% of the 119 not completely English advertisements were placed by organizations from these five sectors (see Table 6.4).

Corpus analyses of job ad messages

Table 6.4. Job advertisements per sector

CBS code	Sector	<i>n</i>	%	Examples
K	Commercial Services	13	11	commercial ICT company, housing association
L	Public Administration	30	25	ministry, district water board
M	Education	10	8	secondary school, university
N	Health	37	31	home care, hospital
O	Other Services	10	8	private employment agency, broadcasting corporation
	Other	19	16	utility company, manufacturer of photocopiers

Note. The column labeled % gives the percentage of the number of job advertisements in a particular sector out of the total of 119 not completely English advertisements.

Most of these not completely job advertisements were placed by organizations from the Health and Public Administration sectors. The use of English was analyzed in the various elements of advertisements placed by organizations from the five sectors that were represented most frequently. We used Kruskal-Wallis tests with sector as the independent variable and the number of English words in the various elements of the job advertisements as the dependent variable.

Table 6.5. Average concentration of English words per job advertisement element, broken down by sector

Element	Commercial Services (<i>n</i> = 13)	Public Admin (<i>n</i> = 30)	Education (<i>n</i> = 10)	Health (<i>n</i> = 37)	Other Services (<i>n</i> = 10)	Chi-Square ^a (<i>df</i> = 4)
Job title	7.7	5.0	7.0	0	0	8.07 ^{ns}
Job description	1.0	0.1	1.8	0.2	0.7	11.26*
Job requirements	0.2	0.2	0	0.4	2.4	16.75**
Headline	6.3	0	0	0	8.0	11.18*
Company information	1.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.6	2.51 ^{ns}
End line	40.0	3.1	0	14.3	100	12.94*
Total job ad	1.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	1.3	9.22 ^{ns}

Note. ^aTested with Kruskal-Wallis Test. *ns* not significant; *: $p < .05$; **: $p < .01$.

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Table 6.5 demonstrates that, on average, the concentration of English was higher in the headline and in the end line in the Commercial Services and Other Services sectors than in the other sectors. However, as is shown in Table 6.3, the total number of advertisements containing headlines and end lines is relatively small. As for the element job description, the average concentration of English was higher in the 'Education', 'Commercial Services', and 'Other Services' sectors than in the other two sectors. As far as the element 'job requirements' is concerned, the mean concentration of English was highest in the Other Services sector. For the elements job title, company information and the total job advertisement, no statistically significant differences were found in the use of English between the various sectors.

For which job levels is English used?

According to the categorization by job level of the Standard Job Classification devised by the Dutch Bureau of Statistics (CBS, 1992), positions at a medium level were offered in 10 (8.4%) of the not completely English job advertisements in our sample, while in 105 advertisements (88.2%) higher-level and academic positions were offered. For four job advertisements, the level of the job offered could not be determined. The average concentration of English words was 0.15 for the medium-level jobs ($SD = 0.48$), and 0.78 for the higher-level and academic positions ($SD = 1.47$). The Mann-Whitney test was used to analyze the use of English in the various elements of job advertisements. No statistically significant differences were found.

Does the use of English depend on the type of organization (multinational vs. Dutch mono-national)?

The majority of the not completely English job advertisements in our sample (88.2%, 105 out of 119) were placed by Dutch mono-national organizations, i.e. organizations that did not have branches outside the Netherlands, rather than by multinational organizations. Examples of the 14 multinational organizations in our sample are Wyeth (see Figure 6.1 on p. 231),

Greenpeace and Nestlé. As can be seen in Table 6.6, the job advertisements placed by multinational organizations contained a significantly higher concentration of English words both in the advertisement as a whole and in all job advertisement elements, except for the job title (tested with Mann-Whitney).

Table 6.6. Average concentration of English words per job advertisement element, broken down by type of company

Element	multinational (<i>n</i> = 14)	Dutch mono-national (<i>n</i> = 105)	<i>Z</i> ^a
Job title	8.3	4.0	1.23 ^{ns}
Job description	1.4	0.5	3.46 ^{**}
Job requirements	1.8	0.4	3.36 ^{**}
Headline	21.6	1.9	5.42 ^{***}
Company information	2.2	0.1	4.71 ^{***}
End line	77.8	20.0	3.15 ^{**}
Total job ad	3.1	0.4	4.92 ^{***}

Note. ^aTested with Mann-Whitney Test. ^{ns} not significant; ^{**}: *p* < .01; ^{***}: *p* < .001.

What English words are used most frequently and what is their potential level of difficulty for Dutch readers?

In our sample of 119 not completely English job advertisements, 108 different English words were used. Most of these words occurred only once or twice. The majority of the English words in our sample could be called 'relatively easy', since most of these words were included in the Longman 'Defining Vocabulary' (Summers, 1998, pp. xviii-xxiii) (56.5%; 61 words), were in the two highest frequency bands distinguished by Sinclair (1995), meaning that they were among the most frequent words in the corpus on which the *COBUILD* dictionary is based (66.7%; 72 words), and had a Dutch cognate (77.8%; 84 words), or met at least two of these criteria (69.4%; 75 words). In addition, many of the relatively uncommon words had Dutch cognates, which is likely to make them easier to understand; this applies to 37 (78.7%) of the 47 words not included in the Longman 'Defining Vocabulary', and 27 (73.0%) of the 36 words not included in Sinclair's two highest frequency bands.

The most frequent English words in our sample of partly English job advertisements are presented in Table 6.7. It can be seen that all 14 words met at least one of the three criteria we set up to determine whether they

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could be considered potentially easy to understand for Dutch native speakers with a basic command of English, while 13 of the 14 words met at least two of these criteria.

Table 6.7. The most frequently used English words in not-completely-English job advertisements

Word	<i>n</i>	In Longman 'Defining Vocabulary' (Summers, 1998, pp. xviii-xxiii)	<i>COBUILD</i> frequency band number (Sinclair, 1995)	Dutch cognate
Before	11	Yes	5	voor
Control	6	Yes	5	controle
Executive	11	No	4	executieve, executive
Human	4	Yes	5	humaan
Last	12	Yes	5	laatst
People('s)	4	Yes	5	no helpful cognate
Professional(s)	8	No	4	professioneel
Recruitment	11	No	1	rekrutering
Senior	11	No	4	senior
Stop	11	Yes	5	stop
The	12	Yes	5	de
Top	11	Yes	5	top
Young	11	Yes	5	jong
Your	11	Yes	5	jouw

The fact that the English words in “Young Executive Recruitment” and “Your last stop before the top” appeared more frequently than other English words is due to these words being the headline and the end line of advertisements placed by the recruitment agency YER which include a large number of job titles. If we leave these words out of consideration, the most frequently used English words were ‘senior’, ‘professional(s)’ and ‘control’.

What proportion of English words have Dutch translation equivalents?

For 96 of the 108 different English words in our corpus (88.9%), Dutch translation equivalents could be found. For example, for the most frequent English words the following Dutch translations would have been possible. “Young executive recruitment” could have been translated as “Werving van jonge leidinggevenden”. “Your last stop before the top” could have been

translated as either “Je laatste stop/halte voor de top” or “Uw laatste stop/halte voor de top”. A possible Dutch translation for ‘Control’ in a phrase such as “Afdeling Financiën en Control” would have been ‘controle’ (“Afdeling Financiën en Controle”). A possible Dutch translation for ‘people’ would have been ‘mensen’ for instance in ‘Hewitt’s motto luidt wereldwijd dan ook: “To excel, around the world, at helping our clients and their people succeed together.”’ (“Om over de hele wereld uit te blinken in het helpen van onze cliënten en hun mensen om samen succesvol te zijn”).

For ten of the 108 English words (9.3%), no Dutch equivalents could be found. To give examples from the most frequent English words found in the corpus, ‘professional(s)’ and ‘senior’ were words for which it turned out to be impossible to find Dutch equivalents that covered their exact meaning. The example of ‘professional’ was already discussed in the method section. The meaning of ‘senior’ in for instance “Senior project manager”, i.e. “of high or higher rank” (Summers, 1998), is not covered by the Dutch equivalent ‘hooggeplaatst’ or ‘hoofd’ suggested in Van Dale (1997). ‘Hooggeplaatst’ is not used as part of a job title, and a senior member of staff is not always a head of department (‘hoofd’).

For two of the 108 English words (1.9%), Dutch equivalents were available in some contexts, but not in others. Among the frequent English words in the corpus there was one example of such a word. As we have already seen in the method section, there was a translation for ‘human’ in “Human Resource Management” (‘personeelsbeheer’) but not in “een Human Frontier Science Program project” because this was the name of a program initiated by an organization other than the one that placed the advertisement.

6.2.4. Conclusion and discussion

The purpose of this article was to contribute to the study of the Anglicization of Dutch business communication by analyzing the use of English in job advertisements published in four Saturday editions of the Dutch national daily *de Volkskrant*. An analysis of all 679 advertisements shows that 2.4% were completely in English. An analysis of a sample of 119 not completely English advertisements reveals that 39% of the advertisements contained one or more English words. When looking at the elements of job

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advertisements, it was found that English was relatively frequently used in the elements 'company information' (22%) and 'job description' (18%). When the percentage of English words out of the total number of words in the various job advertisement elements was considered, it was found that the job title, the headline and especially the end line contained most English words. On average, English was used more frequently in the 'Commercial Services' and 'Other Services' sectors than in other sectors.

Our findings in relation to other studies

The frequency of the use of English in the genre of Dutch job ads

In comparison with types of external business communication in the Netherlands for which data are available, the use of English in Dutch job advertisements appears to be somewhat more common than in Dutch TV commercials and less common than in print advertising for products and services from Dutch glossy women's magazines. It is more difficult to compare our findings with what Gerritsen (1995) found for commercial advertisements from newspapers and magazines, since she represents the use of English in percentages of pages – not single advertisements – containing English. With 39% of job ads containing at least one English word, English appears to be used somewhat more frequently than in TV commercials, since about one third of commercials broadcast on Dutch TV in 1996 contained English (Gerritsen et al., 2000). The percentage of advertisements containing English in the Dutch glossy women's magazine *Elle* in 2004 (Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007) was considerably higher (64%) than in our sample of job advertisements from 2001. When comparing our data with the figures for TV commercials and print advertisements, however, we should not lose sight of the fact that the data were collected at different times. The differences in the amount of English found may not only be due to a difference in the use of English among genres, but may also be due to a general increase in the use of English over time.

In Gerritsen's (2001, p. 108) corpus of job advertisements from 1999, 45% of job titles contained English (i.e. 260 in a corpus of 573

advertisements). This is a larger percentage than the 11% of job titles containing one or more English words in our study, which may be due to the fact that the corpus which Gerritsen (2001) analyzed was composed of different papers (*Intermediair* and *De Telegraaf*). The aim of our study was broader than that of Gerritsen (2001), who only analyzed job titles. By studying complete job advertisements, we hope to have given a fuller picture of the way English is used in this area of business communication through the Dutch media.

The frequency of the use of English and its concentration in the various parts of Dutch job ads

As for the use of English in the various parts of job advertisements, we observed that it was most frequent in the elements 'company information' and 'job description'. However, when the proportion of the number of English words to the total number of words is taken into account, the percentage of English used in these elements – its concentration – is not very large (0.38 and 0.60, respectively). The concentration of English words was the highest in the job title, headline and end line. According to De Witte (1989, p. 212), eye tracking suggests that the job title is the element that makes readers of job advertisements decide to move on to the next advertisement or not. Although De Witte does not comment on the attention paid to headlines and end lines, it may be deducted from research on headlines and other eye catchers in newspaper articles (Donkers & Willems, 1999, pp. 147-152) that headlines and end lines are also likely to be among the first elements to attract the attention of potentially interested readers of job advertisements. If this is indeed the case, it gives English a more prominent position in the advertisements, and, as a result, the use of English may make more of an impression. A similar line of argument – that English occurs most frequently in parts of advertisements where it is likely to have a greater impact on the readers – is used for advertisements promoting products and services in relation to the use of English in the 'signature line' (the brand name, often in combination with a slogan or a trademark) at the bottom of an advertisement (Cheshire & Moser, 1994, pp. 456-457), and in relation to the use of English in headlines (Piller, 2001, pp. 161-162). On the one hand, English is, therefore, used less frequently, but in a higher

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concentration in job advertisement elements which may give it a more prominent position. On the other hand, English occurs in a lower concentration, but more frequently in elements of job advertisements that seem to be less prominent. Further empirical research is needed to determine the communicative effect of the use of English in the various parts of job advertisements.

The concentration of English in Dutch job advertisements in relation to sectors of the economy and job levels

English was found to be used more frequently in job advertisements from the Commercial Services and Other Services sectors than from the Public Administration, Education and Health sectors. It may, therefore, be concluded that English is more frequent in job advertisements placed by organizations from commercial sectors. No statistically significant differences in the use of English were found for the various levels of the jobs offered. It should be taken into account, however, that job advertisements in *de Volkskrant* are generally aimed at highly educated people (see Van Dalen, 1999) and that the vast majority of the positions offered in the advertisements in our sample were high-level jobs, according to the classification of the Dutch Bureau of Statistics. It can, therefore, be argued that, to some extent, Piller's (2001) observation that English in advertising is associated with the business elite applies to the job advertisements in our study.

The concentration of English in Dutch job advertisements in relation to the type of organization (multinational versus Dutch mono-national)

The job advertisements placed by multinational organizations contained a significantly higher concentration of English words than did the advertisements from organizations that only had branches in the Netherlands. The only exception were job titles, which did not show significantly more English in job advertisements from multinational organizations. Thus, although our results are in line with the observations that English is often used by international organizations, our findings do not

corroborate Larson's (1990) *specific* suggestion that multinational companies use English in *job titles* to create consistency in branches across various countries. However, we should be careful in drawing conclusions in relation to the type of organization as our sub-sample of multinational organizations was small.

The most frequently used English words in Dutch job advertisements and their potential level of difficulty

Most of the English words used in our sample of partly English job advertisements - and certainly the vast majority of the most frequent English words - may be called relatively easy since they are among the most frequently used words in the English language, are considered suitable in definitions aimed at learners of English in the Longman 'Defining Vocabulary' (Summers, 1998, pp. xviii-xxiii), or have Dutch cognates. This is in line with Cheshire and Moser's (1994, p. 458) finding that about 85% of the English words in advertisements for products and services in Swiss French-language magazines could either be found in a basic English dictionary for French learners or had German or French cognates.

The absence or presence of Dutch equivalents for English words used in Dutch job advertisements

For the majority of the English words used in the sample of partly English job advertisements, Dutch equivalents could be found. This is similar to what was found by Takashi (1990) and Gerritsen et al. (2000) for the English used in Japanese print-medium product ads and Dutch TV commercials, respectively. This means that the use of these English words must be motivated by reasons other than the need to fill lexical gaps in Dutch. Various such reasons have been suggested in the literature on English in product advertising and job advertising in EFL countries. The use of English words may be motivated by a desire to express greater prestige (e.g. Alm, 2003, p. 151; Haarmann, 1989, pp. 234, 257; Larson, 1990, pp. 367-368; Takashi, 1990, pp. 330-332). English words have also been claimed to sound better than equivalents in the language of the country where the ad

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appeared (Fink et al., 1995, pp. 214, 231; Masavisut et al., 1986, p. 203; Wetzler, 2006, p. 310). English phrases from an ad may be used internationally, for instance to create consistency in communication in various countries (e.g. Alm, 2003, p. 150; Larson, 1990, pp. 367-368). This may apply to YER's slogan "Your last stop before the top", which is in fact used on the organization's Belgian, German, Spanish and US web pages (www.yer.com). English words may be used in an ad because they are generally in common use in an EFL country (Clyne, 1973, pp. 164-165; Fink et al., 1995, pp. 176, 231; Sella, 1993, p. 91; Wetzler, 2006, pp. 303, 308). This may explain the use of the terms 'control', 'professional' and 'senior'. In spite of the fact that these English words are not in the authoritative Dutch dictionary Van Dale (1999), they seem to be in common use in the Netherlands. Whether these reasons actually motivate the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands cannot be determined on the basis of corpus analyses. What motivates makers of job ads in the Netherlands to use English can only be investigated through interviews or surveys. Whether English words in job ads in the Netherlands are indeed felt to enhance prestige or to sound better than their Dutch equivalents can only be researched through experiments involving the target groups of these ads.

Our definition of English

When deciding whether a word was English or not, we have tried to apply clear-cut criteria. However, our approach may have been too liberal with respect to what we considered to be Dutch and too strict with respect to what we considered to be English. Other studies of the use of English in countries where English is not the primary language often use a broader definition of what is to be considered English, which does not take the degree to which a word is integrated into the receiving language into account, as may be shown by inclusion of such a word in an authoritative dictionary of the national language, or by the use of non-English inflection, conjugation or spelling. Griffin (1997, p. 36), for instance, uses the following definition in his study of English in Polish magazine advertisements: "an English word was defined as any word that is a word in English - even if it is also a word in French, German, etc. - as long as its use fit an English definition of the word". In her study of English in French television

commercials, Martin (2002, p. 9) defines English as follows: “the term ‘English’ is used to describe any word, phrase or sentence recognizable as belonging to any native or non-native variety of English”. Our assumption was that a word of English origin was part of the Dutch language if it was included in Van Dale (1999), or inflected, conjugated or spelled in accordance with Dutch language rules. However, ordinary native speakers of Dutch may still regard such a word as English.

When we use a broader definition of English, it is logical that there is an increase in the proportion of English words in our corpus. According to such a broad definition, English words include not only the words that were considered to be English in the present study, but also words that Van Dale (1999) marks as being of English origin (with the label ‘[Eng]’), Dutch-English hybrids, and English words that are conjugated, inflected or spelled according to the rules of the Dutch language, since they all contain an English element. This would mean that words such as ‘manager’, ‘controlcyclus’, ‘ge-outsourced’ and ‘key-users’ are also considered English. In fact, such ‘broad’ English words are among the most frequent English words in our sample of 119 not completely English advertisements. Used either as separate words or in compounds, ‘manager(s)’ is the most frequent broad English word ($n = 50$), followed by ‘management’ ($n = 42$), ‘team(s)’ ($n = 12$), ‘account(s)’ ($n = 9$), ‘assessment’ ($n = 6$), ‘business’ ($n = 6$) and ‘service(s)’ ($n = 6$). When we compare the results of an analysis of the 119 not completely English advertisements based on this broad definition with the results we have presented earlier, the proportion of English words would increase. The average number of English words per advertisement increases from 2.2 to 3.9 ($SD = 5.3$, minimum 0, maximum 21), while the average concentration of English words increases from 0.7% to 1.2% ($SD = 1.72\%$; minimum 0%, maximum 7%). The percentage of job advertisements containing one or more English words rises from 39% to 70%, that of advertisements containing two or more English words increases from 29% to 48%, and that of advertisements with three or more English words increases from 21% to 44%. This increase due to definition does not affect the comparison we made with other studies at the beginning of Section 6.2.4, since these studies only used the restrictive definition of English.

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Suggestions for further research

The present study has a number of shortcomings which must be considered in future research. The question is to what extent job advertisements from *de Volkskrant* are representative of all job advertisements published in Dutch papers. Since job advertisements in *de Volkskrant* mainly reach highly educated people, further research into the use of English in job advertisements aimed at other target groups would be a useful addition to the present study.

It would also be interesting to compare the use of English in job advertisements in Dutch papers to that in job advertisements published in other countries where English is not the primary language. It might be hypothesized that English is more widely used in recruitment advertising in the Netherlands than in most other European Union countries, in view of research on the status of English in the Netherlands in general. Eurobarometer data from 2001 indicate that 75% of the Dutch population claims to be able to speak English well enough to take part in a conversation, compared to an average of 32% of the population in EU countries where English is not the mother tongue (European Commission, 2001, pp. 83-84). Comparative corpus analyses should investigate whether there are indeed differences in the use of English in job advertisements in the various EU countries and whether these can be related to differences in general English language proficiency.

Appendix 6.1: Decisions about word status in problematic cases

In order to be able to determine how many English and Dutch words were used in our sample of job advertisements, we needed to define what a word is. For the purposes of this study, a word was defined as “a character or consecutive string of characters between spaces, or between a space and a punctuation mark” (cf. *Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary*, n.d.). In potentially problematic cases, the following decisions were made:

- An internet address, a telephone number, postal code and a sign such as € (for euro) were each considered to be one word.
 - Examples. The phone number ‘024 3612942’ (which can also be written as ‘024-3612942’) and the postal code ‘6525 HT’ were both counted as one word.
- Words joined by a hyphen were considered to be one word.
 - Example ‘Not-for-profit-instelling’ (‘Not-for-profit organization’) was counted as one word.
- An abbreviation, a shortened form of one or more words, whether written with or without dots, was counted as the number of words it stood for. However, an acronym, a noun made up of the initial letters of the constituent words, was considered to be one word.
 - Examples of abbreviations which are not acronyms. ‘N.a.v.’ (‘naar aanleiding van’, ‘with reference to’) was counted as three words. ‘A.s.’ (‘aanstaande’, ‘next’) en ‘mw.’ (‘mevrouw’, ‘Ms’) were both counted as one word.
 - Examples of acronyms. ‘HBO’ (‘Hoger Beroepsonderwijs’, ‘Higher Vocational Education’) and ‘CV’ were each counted as one word.
- In personal names, each initial was counted as a separate word.
 - Example. ‘D.K.M. Francken’ was counted as four words, while ‘Daan Francken’ was counted as two words.
- An ampersand (‘&’) was seen as a kind of punctuation mark and was not considered to be a word.
- Words separated by a slash (‘/’) were counted as separate words.
 - Example. The sequence ‘M/V’ (used after job titles to indicate that the applicant may be either male or female, to avoid sexual bias) was counted as two words.

Appendix 6.2: Criteria used to determine whether a word was English in not completely English job advertisements

If a job advertisement was not completely in English, but partly or fully in Dutch, the following procedure was used to determine whether a word was English or Dutch.

- If a word was an entry in the latest edition of the authoritative dictionary of the Dutch language, the thirteenth edition of *Van Dale Groot woordenboek der Nederlandse taal* (Van Dale, 1999) in the meaning it conveyed in the job advertisement, it was considered to be Dutch, even if it was a word which was derived from English. This definition is essentially the same as that used in Gerritsen (1995, 2001) and Gerritsen et al. (2000), even though some of these earlier studies used an older edition of Van Dale.
 - Examples. Because 'manager' and 'assessment' are in Van Dale in the sense intended in the advertisement, these words were regarded as Dutch.
- If a word, given the context in which it occurred, could be both English and Dutch, it was considered to be Dutch. In our interpretation of the constraints of the context, we deviate from Gerritsen (2001, p. 108) on a crucial point. She regards job titles that can be either English or Dutch as Dutch 'except when they occurred together with an English word, for example people supervisor', where 'people' is an unambiguously English word and 'supervisor' could be either Dutch or English. In the case of phrases consisting of strings of nouns, we decided that it was not possible to conclude that, because some of the nouns in the string were definitely English, all the nouns in the string must be English, since strings which are a combination of unambiguously Dutch and English nouns are possible too (e.g., 'security adviseur', meaning 'security advisor').
 - Example. In the job title 'Technical consultant ICT Security' 'consultant' and 'ICT' (short for 'informatie- en communicatietechnologie') were considered Dutch, while 'technical' and 'security' were classified as English.
- If a word occurred in a string of words which, in view of its grammatical and syntactic form, was clearly a completely English phrase, this word was considered to be English, even if out of context it could also be a Dutch word.
 - Example. 'Your last stop before the top' was analyzed as six English words, even though 'stop' and 'top' can also be Dutch words.

- If a word was not in Van Dale, or not in Van Dale in the sense intended in the job ad, but it was found in the right sense in English dictionaries (Crowther, 1995; Procter et al., 1995; Summers, 2000; Tuck, 1993), it was considered to be English.
 - Example. 'Professional' was regarded as an English word, because in the job advertisement it was used in the sense of 'someone who does a job requiring special education and training' or of 'someone who is very experienced, has a lot of knowledge, and does things very skillfully' (Summers, 2000), and not of 'someone who practises a sport as profession' ("iemand die een tak van sport als beroep uitoefent"), as it is defined in Van Dale.
- If a word was not in Van Dale, or not in Van Dale in the sense intended in the job ad, nor in the English dictionaries consulted, but it was found in the right meaning on English-language UK websites, using the 'advanced search' option of the search engine GOOGLE ('language: English'; 'site: UK'), it was classified as English. We did not consult American websites, because most American web addresses do not include a country code.
 - Example. 'Micro-arrays' was not in the English dictionaries we consulted but it was found on a UK website.
- An English proper name was not analyzed as an English word (unless it was used in a completely English job ad), because in the case of names there is usually no choice between a Dutch and an English variant, since the name of a person or an organization is usually 'a given'. However, if the name of an organization or a department contained meaningful English words, these were counted as English words, since in these cases the use of English is a matter of choice.
 - Examples. 'Johnson & Johnson' was not considered to contain any English words. 't for Telecom' was considered to contain two English words: 'for' and 'Telecom'.
- A compound noun consisting of an English and a Dutch part was regarded as a Dutch word. Such hybrids, words with parts from different languages, could also have been counted as half Dutch and half English, but we decided only to count full words.
 - Examples. The hybrid compound 'controlcyclus', made up of the English word 'control' and the Dutch word 'cyclus', was counted as one Dutch word. The compound 'teambuilder' was also regarded as a Dutch-English compound, and therefore as a Dutch word, since 'team' was in Van Dale, although 'builder' was not.

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- If an English word was inflected, conjugated or spelled in accordance with Dutch language rules, it was considered to be a Dutch word.
 - Examples. The past participle 'ge-outsourced', with its Dutch prefix 'ge', was analyzed as a Dutch word. The compound 'key-users' was also seen as a Dutch word, since it was not spelled as two separate words as it would be according to English conventions, but as one hyphenated word - in accordance with Dutch spelling rules, which stipulate that a compound noun should be written as one word (see, for example, Burrough-Boenisch, 1998, pp. 51-53).

Figure 6.1 on p. 231 shows a Dutch job advertisement with English words in a number of job advertisement elements. We have underlined the words that were regarded as English according to our definition. English is used in the company information sections ('American Home Products Corporation'; 'woman's health'; 'Personnel Officer'), the job title and the job description ('Scientific Information Services Officer'). The advertisement also contains words of English origin that we did not consider to be English because they were in the Dutch dictionary Van Dale (1999); in the company information sections we find 'service' (described as a word which has no plural form, unlike the English 'services' in the job title and the job description), 'fulltime', 'email', and 'www.wyeth.com' ('www' is in Van Dale), and in the job requirements we find 'teamplayer' ('team' is in Van Dale) and 'databases'.

6.3 Monsterboard corpus study. The use of English in job advertisements on the Dutch job site Monsterboard.nl and factors on which it depends¹⁴

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Abstract

Previous studies on the factors that determine the use of English in product advertising and print-medium job advertisements in non-English-speaking countries have overwhelmingly analysed English in product advertising. Drawing on the reasons suggested in such studies, the present contribution analyses the use of English in job advertisements from the Netherlands Monsterboard.nl job site and the factors on which it may depend.

An analysis of a random sample of 120 advertisements revealed that 4% were completely in English, and that 88.5% of the remaining Dutch ads contained at least one English word. When we considered the number of English words as a proportion of the total number of words, we found that there was more English in job titles and logos than in other job ad elements. Advertisements for jobs in the ‘financial institutions sector’ contained less English than jobs in the ‘transport, storage and communications’ and ‘commercial services’ sectors. There was more English in ads placed by multinational organizations than in ads from domestic organizations. Ads

¹⁴ This study was published as Van Meurs, Korzilius, and Den Hollander (2006d), which is reprinted here with some modifications. New publications details have been added for publications which were listed as “forthcoming” and “to appear” in the original article but which have now come out. For references to articles that are included in this dissertation, cross references to the chapters and sections concerned have been added between square brackets. Also added were analyses of the potential level of difficulty of the English words used, and of the presence or absence of Dutch translation equivalents for these words, originally published in Van Meurs, Korzilius, & Den Hollander (2006a). The references from the bibliography of the original article have been included in the list of references for the whole of this dissertation, which can be found on pp. 409-431.

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for medium-level jobs contained less English than ads for higher-level and academic jobs.

Most of our findings confirm the relevance of factors mentioned in previous research as determinants of the extent to which English is used in advertising in non-English-speaking countries.

6.3.1. Introduction

Anyone searching for jobs on Monsterboard.nl (the Netherlands website of Monster Worldwide Inc.) on 17 February 2004 would have found vacancies for “SAP HR with Payroll & Time Specialty” or “supply chain integration specialist”, offered through intermediaries such as “Computer Future Solutions”. Using English like this in job advertisements is one aspect of the use of the English language in the Netherlands. Berns (1995, pp. 8-9) observes that English is used “in various social, cultural, commercial and educational settings” in Dutch society (see also Gerritsen & Nickerson, 2004; Ridder, 1995). A number of studies have quantified the use of English in Dutch product advertising – which, like job advertising, is a form of external organizational communication through the Dutch media. In one such study, Gerritsen (1995) showed that English was used in 19% of the advertisement pages in newspapers and magazines published in the Netherlands in 1994. Another study reported that approximately one third of commercials broadcast on Dutch television in 1996 contained English (Gerritsen, Korzilius, Van Meurs & Gijsbers 2000). In the Dutch edition of the glossy women’s magazine *Elle* published in 2004, English has been found in 64% of the advertisements (Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007).

The use of English in product advertising and in job advertising is certainly not unique to the Netherlands. In fact, there have been many studies on the use of English in product advertising in non-English-speaking countries (see Piller, 2003, for an overview of research in this area), but only relatively few have examined the use of English in job ads in such countries. We are aware of four studies outside the Netherlands of job advertisements in newspapers: in Finland (Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2003), Germany (Hilgendorf, 1996), Sweden (Larson, 1990), and Switzerland (Watts, 2002). None of these studies, however, quantifies the use of English.

Schreiner (1990, p. 7) and Renkema, Vallen and Hoeken (2001, p. 257) claim that English terms are widely used in Dutch job advertisements. It would seem important to gain more insight into how much English is actually employed in such ads, based on counts rather than on impressions. This would seem particularly important in view of the favourable and unfavourable comments that have been made about the use of English in job advertising in the Netherlands as well as in other non-English-speaking countries. For example, some have suggested that English is often used to enhance the status of the position advertised (e.g. Larson, 1990; Peereboom, 1991), but others have denounced the use of English, particularly in job titles, as “odd” and “exaggerated” (Peereboom, 1991, p. 7; our translation) and as an “odd form of business jargon” (Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2003, p. 8). In spite of these claims and comments, there have been few studies on the actual frequency of English words in Dutch job ads. In one such study, Gerritsen (2001) established that over a ten-year period there was a statistically significant increase in the number of English gender-neutral terms such as ‘engineer’ in job ad headings in the Dutch national daily newspaper *De Telegraaf* and the Dutch national weekly *Intermediair*: from 60% in 1989 to 81% in 1999. Korzilius, Van Meurs and Hermans (2006) [Section 6.2 above] studied the use of English in job advertisements in one of the national daily papers in the Netherlands, *de Volkskrant*. They found that 2.4% of the 679 job ads published in August 2001 were completely in English. When they examined 119 partly or wholly Dutch advertisements in more detail, they found that 39% contained one or more English words.

As well as consulting the print media, highly educated job seekers in the Netherlands also search for jobs online (NOA, 2004, p. 13). Until now, the use of English in this medium had not yet been studied. The present study aimed to fill the gap in our knowledge about the use of English in external organizational communication through the Dutch media. Specifically, we set out to determine how English is used in job advertisements on the job site *Monsterboard.nl*, which is the best known job site in the Netherlands (NIPO, 2003) and is consulted most often by highly educated Dutch job seekers (NOA, 2004, p. 16).

Drawing on observations and previous empirical research on the use of English in non-English-speaking countries – particularly research that examined the use of English in product advertising and printed job

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advertisements – we formulated five research questions about the factors that might determine the use of English in job advertisements on Monsterboard.nl. In light of the observations about the spread of English in Dutch society generally (Berns, 1995, pp. 8-9; Ridder, 1995), in Dutch product advertising (Gerritsen, 1995; Gerritsen et al., 2000; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007), and in print-medium job advertisements (Gerritsen, 2001; Korzilius et al., 2006 [Section 6.2 above]; Renkema et al., 2001, p. 257), we wished to ascertain to what extent English is used in job ads on Monsterboard.nl. Therefore, our first research question was:

RQ1: How many job advertisements on Monsterboard.nl contain English?

Research into product advertisements has shown that the use of English varies per element of the advertisement (Alm, 2003; Bhatia, 2001; Cheshire & Moser, 1994). Specifically with reference to job ads in the Netherlands, Schreiner (1990, p. 7) states that English is used frequently in job titles. Korzilius et al. (2006) have shown that the concentration of English in job ads in *de Volkskrant* was highest in job titles, headlines, and especially in ‘end lines’ [see Section 6.2.3]. Question 2 was intended to generate comparable data on Monsterboard.nl ads.

RQ 2: In which parts of job advertisements from Monsterboard.nl is English used the most?

The use of English in the Netherlands is domain-specific. English is used more frequently in some areas of Dutch society than in others (Claus & Taeldeman, 1989; Van der Sijs, 1996). It has also been found that in advertising in non-English-speaking countries, English is used more for certain types of products than for others (e.g. Cheshire & Moser, 1994; Griffin, 1997). Although Korzilius et al. (2006) found no significant differences in the concentration of English in print-medium Dutch job ads from different sectors of the economy [see Section 6.2.3], we wished to establish that this was also the case for the job ads placed on Monsterboard.nl. Hence question 3:

RQ 3: Does the use of English in job ads on Monsterboard.nl depend on the economic sector of the organization with the job vacancy?

There is some evidence that the use of English in commercial contexts may depend on the socio-economic and educational status of the target group. Interviews with representatives of Ecuadorian advertising agencies reveal that they use English especially when targeting the “upper-middle and upper classes” and that they avoid using it in advertising targeted at the lower and lower middle classes “with little educational background” (Alm, 2003, p. 151). Although Korzilius et al. (2006) found no significant differences in the concentration of English between print-medium Dutch job ads advertising higher-level and academic positions and those advertising medium-level positions [see Section 6.2.3], we wished to ascertain whether the use of English in Monsterboard.nl job ads varied depending on the level of the position advertised.

RQ 4: Does the use of English in job ads on Monsterboard.nl depend on the level of the positions advertised?

Advertising agencies contend that one reason for the use of English in commercial advertising in non-English-speaking countries is that this is part of “a globally consistent marketing strategy” (Alm, 2003, p. 150; cf. Gerritsen et al., 2000, p. 20). International organizations wish to use the same English-language advertisement, commercial, brand name or slogan in different countries. Larson (1990, p. 368) states that multinational companies use English-language job titles in job advertisements for the sake of international consistency. Korzilius et al. (2006) found that English was used more in print-medium Dutch job ads placed by multinational organizations than in those placed by domestic organizations (i.e. organizations that only had branches in the Netherlands) [see Section 6.2.3]. We wished to check this for the Monsterboard.nl job ads:

RQ 5: Is English used more in job ads placed on Monsterboard.nl by multinational organizations than in ads placed by domestic organizations?

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Two final research questions relate to the types of English words used in Dutch job advertisements. Cheshire and Moser (1994, pp. 457-458) argue that the majority of English words they found in product ads in Swiss magazines should be easy to understand for Swiss readers, either because they belong to the basic English vocabulary these readers may be expected to know, or because they resemble German and French words. We wanted to determine whether this was also the case for English in Dutch job advertisements, and we therefore formulated the following research question:

RQ 6: What percentage of English words in Dutch job ads on Monsterboard.nl should be easy to understand for Dutch readers with at least a basic knowledge of English, either because these words are part of basic English vocabulary, or because they have Dutch cognates?

One of the reasons mentioned for the use of English words in product advertisements in EFL countries is that these English words fill a lexical gap, i.e., they have a meaning which cannot be expressed by existing words in the first language of the country where the ads are published (Alm, 2003, p. 150; Gerritsen et al., 2000, p. 20; Takashi, 1990, p. 329). The literature, however, stresses that other reasons, such as the image-enhancing effect of English, are more important (Gerritsen et al., p. 20; Takashi, pp. 330-331). In order to find out to what extent the use of English words in the Monsterboard job advertisements could be explained by the fact that they were needed to fill lexical gaps in Dutch, we investigated what proportion of the English words in these job ads had Dutch equivalents:

RQ 7: What percentage of English words in Dutch job ads on Monsterboard.nl have Dutch equivalents?

The answers to these seven research questions will, we hope, not only shed light on the use of English in job advertisements on the Dutch job site Monsterboard.nl, but will also provide a springboard for similar studies in other countries.

6.3.2 Methods

The corpus

The corpus of job advertisements that we analysed to answer our research questions consisted of a sample of 120 ads chosen randomly from the 5000 displayed on Monsterboard.nl on 17 February 2004. This sample size allows us to say with 95% certainty that our sample results have a sampling error within the range of plus or minus 9% (Korzilius, 2000, pp. 111-112), which, to give a hypothetical example, would mean that a finding of 50% in our sample corresponds with a percentage between 41 and 59 in all job ads on Monsterboard.nl (the total population). The 5000 ads were found using the 'search jobs' option on Monsterboard.nl, without specifying location, job category or keyword. In order to make the random selection, each of the 5000 ads was numbered, the numbers of the ads were entered in a data file in the statistical program SPSS (version 12.0.1.), and the 'random sample of cases' option was used to select 120 numbers. On Monsterboard.nl, job ads can be viewed in three ways: 1) only the job title, the name of the organization and the location; 2) the job title, the name of the organization, the location, and a short excerpt from the advertisement; 3) the complete job advertisement. We opted to analyse complete job advertisements.

Elements of a job advertisement

On the basis of Van Dalen (1999, pp. 103-110), we distinguished the following elements of job advertisements:

- job title: the appellation indicating the position advertised;
- job description: the tasks and responsibilities involved in the vacancy that is on offer;
- job requirements: the requirements an applicant should meet, for instance in terms of education, experience, and personal characteristics;

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- headline: serves to draw the reader's attention; not necessarily located at the very top of the ad, but always distinctive because in a large font;
- company information: information about the organization offering the vacancy, e.g. core activities, number of employees;
- offer: what the successful candidate will get for filling the vacancy, e.g. salary, fringe benefits, training opportunities, career prospects;
- application procedure: how the interested candidates should apply for the job that is on offer;
- logo;
- illustration;
- end line: a sign-off line, containing a message from the organization.

Van Dalen's (1999) division of elements was based on print-medium job advertisements. In the job ads from Monsterboard.nl that we analysed, headlines were rare and there were no illustrations or 'end lines'. The template of the Monsterboard.nl job ads yielded four other distinctive textual units that are not found in job ads from newspapers or magazines:

- a location printed in bold on a separate line at the top of the ad;
- a textual unit headed "Additional Information", containing information about the type of job (e.g. whether it is "permanent" and "full time", and a reference number);
- a textual unit headed "Contact Information", containing contact details for candidates interested in pursuing the job opportunity;
- a section with hyperlinks at the bottom of the ad, i.e., a link to other job ads from the same organization, a link that enables the ad to be forwarded, and a link enabling the applicant to apply directly to the organization.

All the Monsterboard job ad elements are listed in Table 6.8 on p. 273, with examples of English words used in each element. For an advertisement from our sample illustrating these elements, see Appendix 6.3.

Defining 'word' and 'English'

In order to be able to determine how many English and Dutch words were used in our corpus of job advertisements, we needed to define what a word is. A word was defined as 'a character or consecutive string of characters appearing between spaces, or between a space and a punctuation mark' (based on *Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary*). Thus, the abbreviations "HR" and "CV" were each regarded as one word, as was the compound noun "retail-team"

To decide whether a word was English or Dutch, we applied criteria that could be objectively verified. We made a distinction between English words used in a completely English context and English words used in a Dutch context. For words in a completely English context, we used the following definition:

- If all the words in a job advertisement or a phrase from a job ad (except for names) could be found in English dictionaries or on English websites, and the grammar and syntax were English, all the words in the ad or the phrase were classed as English. All the words in the phrase "EMAIL THIS JOB TO A FRIEND", for example, were counted as English words.

For English words used in a Dutch context, we used a restrictive definition of English. A word of English origin was not classified as English if it had become part of the Dutch language, which we operationalized as 1) an English word that was an entry in the latest edition of the authoritative dictionary of the Dutch language, the thirteenth edition of *Van Dale Groot Woordenboek der Nederlandse Taal* (Geerts, Den Boon, Geeraerts & Vos, 1999), or 2) an English word that was spelled according to Dutch spelling conventions. Our rationale was that words of English origin included in Geerts et al. could be considered to be loanwords that had been accepted as part of the Dutch language,¹⁵ and that words spelled the Dutch way would

¹⁵ In their introduction, Geerts et al. (1999) point out that new words, meanings and idioms are considered for inclusion in the dictionary 'when they have been current in daily speech for a considerable amount of time and are accepted by opinion leaders'

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not be encountered in this form in English. Basically, our classification criteria for words in a Dutch context were:

- If a job advertisement or a phrase was not completely in English, we classified a word as English if it was in an English dictionary or on an English website, was not (in the meaning intended) in Geerts et al. (1999), and had not been spelled the Dutch way. In the phrase “ontwikkelen van technische solutions” [developing technical solutions], for instance, the word “solutions” was classified as English because it was in an English dictionary (Summers, 1998) and not in Geerts et al. In the phrase “medewerkers en managers” [staff members and managers], the word “manager” was not classified as English, because it was in Geerts et al. In “onderstaande consultancyskills” [the consultancy skills listed below], “consultancy skills” was classified as a Dutch word, because it was spelled as one word, in accordance with Dutch spelling conventions, and not as two words, as it would be spelled in English (see, for example, Burrough-Boenisch, 2004, pp. 71-73).

Our criteria were based on earlier Dutch studies of English in Dutch product advertising and job advertising (e.g. Gerritsen, 1995; Gerritsen, 2001; Gerritsen et al., 2000; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007; Korzilius et al., 2006 [Section 6.2 above]). For a more detailed description of the Dutch/English classification procedure we followed for advertisements that were not fully in English, see Appendix 6.3, which also includes more examples.

Determining sector and job level of the positions advertised

In order to determine whether the frequency of English words depended on the type of the organization advertising the job or on the type of position that was advertised, we classified the organizations and positions according

(p. xi), whom they describe as ‘writers, educators, scholars, journalists, radio and television producers’ (pp. xi-xii) [our translation].

to the official categories of the Dutch Bureau of Statistics (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, CBS):

- the Standard Company Classification 1993 ('Standaard bedrijfsindeling 1993'; CBS, 1993);
- the Standard Job Classification 1992 ('Standaard beroepenclassificatie 1992'; CBS, 1992).

To classify the organizations in our corpus, we used the highest abstraction level at which economic activities are categorized in CBS (1993), that of 'sections', such as 'Manufacturing' and 'Transport, Storage and Communications'. To classify the positions in our corpus, we used the highest abstraction level at which jobs are categorized in CBS (1992), i.e. the classification by job level, which indicates the educational level required (CBS, 2001, p. 8). This, for instance, resulted in a distinction between medium- and higher-level jobs.

Determining the multinational status of an organization

To ascertain whether the use of English depended on the multinational status of the organizations where the vacancies were to be filled, we defined a particular organization as a multinational if any of the following conditions applied:

- Branches in the Netherlands as well as in other countries were mentioned in the job advertisement or on the organization's website.
- The company was part of a larger organization that had branches in the Netherlands and in other countries, according to the information in the job ad or on the organization's website.
- The job ad specified that the organization was international.

Websites for branches of the organization outside the Netherlands were found by changing the website's extension from '.nl' (the country code for the Netherlands) to '.com' or '.org', or to the extensions of other countries, for instance, '.be'.

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If none of the three conditions was met and the organization's website only mentioned Dutch locations, we classified that organization as domestic. In the absence of sufficient information on any of these points (in many cases the name of the organization was not mentioned in the job advertisement), we assigned the status 'unknown'. When considering multinational status, we only looked at the status of the organizations with the vacancies to be filled, and ignored the status of any intermediaries placing the job advertisements on behalf of these organizations.

Determining the degree of difficulty of English words in partly English job advertisements

In order to determine the degree of difficulty of English words in partly English job advertisements, we used three criteria, inspired by the criteria applied by Cheshire and Moser (1994). A word was seen as relatively easy if it met one of the following conditions:

- The word was included in the 'Defining Vocabulary' of the *Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture* (Summers, 1998, pp. xviii-xxiii), words that are used in definitions aimed at learners of English.
- The word was marked with four or five 'black diamonds' in the *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary*, to indicate that it was part of the two groups of words with the highest frequency in the database used to compile this learner's dictionary (Sinclair, 1995, p. xiii).
- The word had a Dutch cognate that was listed in the Dutch Van Dale dictionary (Geerts et al., 1999), such as 'assistent' for 'assistant'. Words of English origin listed in Geerts et al. were also considered to be cognates. For example, 'sciencepark' was regarded as a cognate for 'scientific'. If a Dutch word which was etymologically related to an English word but was not close in meaning or form to this word, it was not categorised as a useful cognate, because it did not offer sufficient support for interpreting the English word. We, for example, argued that there was no useful Dutch cognate for 'benefits', because the etymologically related Dutch word 'benefiet'

was not close enough in meaning to the English word. 'Benefiet' is only used in relation to charity.

We only applied these criteria to English words in not completely English parts of job advertisements, because the comprehensibility of English words in completely English parts not only depends on the difficulty of the individual words, but also on the fact that they occur in an English context.

Sources of Dutch translations of English words in partly English job advertisements

We consulted the Dutch-English dictionary *Van Dale Groot elektronisch woordenboek Engels-Nederlands* (Van Dale, 1997) and Dutch websites to find Dutch translations for English words in not completely English parts of partly English job ads. In the case of names, our assumption was that an organization could have chosen to use an Dutch translation of English names within their control, for instance, the name of the organization itself (e.g. calling itself "Mankracht" instead of "Manpower"), but that it could not have used a Dutch translation of an English name of an organization or product over which it had no control, for instance, names of products produced by other organizations (e.g., the computer program "Word" used in job ads for positions in organizations other than Microsoft).

Statistical analyses

Frequencies, means, and standard deviations were calculated with the statistical program SPSS 12.0.1. Since the independent variables, i.e. the number of English words, were not normally distributed (determined by means of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test), non-parametrical statistical tests were used to determine statistically significant differences. To determine the significance of differences between two independent groups, the Mann-Whitney test was used, and the Kruskal-Wallis test was used when more than two independent groups were involved. We carried out the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test, which determines differences between two dependent

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samples, in order to establish whether there was a statistically significant difference in the amount of English between the various pairs of job ad elements (e.g. job title vs. job description, job title vs. job requirements, etc.). When we used multiple pairwise statistical tests, we applied the Bonferonni correction, dividing the alpha level by the number of pairwise comparisons, in order to reduce the risk of wrongly declaring a difference to be significant.

6.3.3 Results and discussion

In this section we will present the results of our corpus analysis of job advertisements from Monsterboard.nl, arranged by research question. For each research question, we will first present the findings, and then place them in the context of earlier studies.

How many job advertisements contain English?

In our sample of 120 job advertisements, five (4%) were completely in English. One job ad was largely in German, with a number of English words, and one ad was partly in English and partly in Danish. These advertisements containing German and Danish words will be excluded from the remainder of our discussion. Of the remaining 113 advertisements that were not wholly in English, but wholly or partly in Dutch, 100 (88.5%) contained one or more English words.

On average, the five all-English job advertisements contained 306 words (min. 156, max. 630, $SD = 191$). In the 113 advertisements that were wholly or partly in Dutch, the mean number of English words was 50 (min. 0, max. 545, $SD = 98$). The mean total number of words in these 113 advertisements was 325 (min. 73, max. 695, $SD = 129$). In the 100 partly Dutch advertisements that contained one or more English words, the mean number of English words was 57 ($SD = 103$; min. 1, max. 545), while the mean total number of words was 327 (min. 73, max. 695, $SD = 131$).

It is clear that most of the job ads we analysed contained English, in line with observations about the widespread use of English in Dutch society generally (e.g. Berns, 1995, pp. 8–9). A comparison with the findings of earlier corpus analyses indicates that English was used more frequently in

our sample of Monsterboard.nl job ads from 2004 than in other forms of external organization communication through the Dutch media: TV commercials from 1996 (Gerritsen et al., 2000), advertisements from the glossy magazine *Elle* from 2004 (Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007), and job ads in the national daily paper *de Volkskrant* in 2001 (Korzilius et al., 2006 [Section 6.2 above]). The eight-year difference in the data sets might have affected the comparison with the TV commercials, but an analysis of 150 *de Volkskrant* job advertisements from February/March 2004 (i.e. including the date of our Monsterboard.nl sample) has confirmed that English is less frequent in the *de Volkskrant* ads: only two ads were completely in English and 38% of the remainder (56 ads) contained at least one English word.¹⁶ On average, Monsterboard ads contained more English words than the 2001 *de Volkskrant* ads: 50 versus 2.2 for all not completely English job ads, and 57 versus 5.5 for ads not completely in English but containing at least one English word (comparable data were not available for the other ads and TV commercials). These comparisons suggest that the frequency of English depends on the genre and medium.

Which job ad elements contain the most English?

Table 6.8 on p. 273 shows the extent to which English was used in the various elements of the 113 Monsterboard ads not completely in English. The three elements that most frequently included one or more English words were (in decreasing order): *logo*, *links*, and *job requirements* (column 3). The three elements that were most frequently completely English were: *application procedure*, *offer*, and *job requirements* (column 4). The mean number of English words was the highest in the elements *job description* and *job requirements*. For examples of English words in the various elements, see column 8 of Table 6.8 and Appendix 6.3.

Since not all the elements of a job advertisement contained the same number of words, we calculated the concentration of English per job ad

¹⁶ We thank Daan Belgers, Tamar Euser, Michella Felleman, Maarten Ooms, and Jelle Peeters for providing us with data on the use of English in job advertisements from *de Volkskrant* published in February and March 2004, analysed for their BA theses for the Department of Business Communication Studies of the Radboud University Nijmegen, the Netherlands.

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element, i.e. the percentage of English words out of the total number of words in such an element (see Table 6.8, column 7). On average, 15.9% of the total number of words in the 113 not-completely-English job ads were in English. To ascertain in which elements the concentration of English was significantly higher, we compared pairs of job ad elements, using Wilcoxon Signed Rank tests with a Bonferroni correction of $\alpha < .001$ (for reasons of space, the detailed results of these tests are omitted here). We excluded the element *headline* because so few of the ads contained headlines. We found that the elements *job title* and *logo* more frequently contained a larger concentration of English than the other job ad elements, and that in the element *additional information*, the concentration of English was frequently smaller than in the other elements.

Corpus analyses of job ad messages

Table 6.8. Elements of the 113 not-completely-English job ads from Monsterboard.nl containing one or more English words

Column							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Job ad element	Total number of ads containing a particular element	Number and % of elements with one or more English words ^a	Number and % of completely English elements ^a	Mean number of English words (SD)	Mean number of Dutch words (SD)	Mean percentage of English words (SD)	Examples of English words in element ^b
Location	113	6 (5.3%)	0 (0%)	0.07 (0.32)	3.22 (1.29)	3.8 (17.4)	NL-UT-The Netherlands
Job title	113	36 (31.9%)	18 (15.9%)	1.27 (1.9)	3.38 (2.97)	26.6 (35.7)	Customer Service Medewerker (technisch)
Job description	113	44 (38.9%)	17 (15.0%)	16.88 (44.63)	65.16 (49.34)	17.5 (36.0)	Het opstellen van periodieke forecasts
Job requirements	113	45 (39.8%)	18 (15.9%)	12.56 (26.11)	55.12 (50.92)	19.0 (36.2)	Je kunt goed werken met Word en Excel
Headline	3	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0.00 (0.00)	0.31 (2.07)	0 (0)	-
Company Information	98	30 (30.6%)	11 (11.2%)	6.49 (18.69)	45.46 (59.13)	13.7 (31.6)	All Options is een jong, ambitious en zeer succesvol...
Company information intermediary	98	20 (20.4%)	1 (1.0%)	1.43 (7.87)	20.69 (27.84)	4.7 (14.7)	Computer Futures Solutions is het grootste...
Offer	79	10 (12.7%)	13 (16.5%)	3.45 (10.39)	20.14 (29.35)	16.9 (36.8)	Een gedegen 'training on the job'.
Application procedure	60	21 (35.0%)	13 (21.7%)	3.53 (9.74)	15.32 (22.81)	23.3 (39.5)	...contact opnemen met de afdeling recruitment...
Logo	113	51 (45.1%)	14 (12.4%)	0.95 (1.35)	1.33 (1.05)	30.1 (36.6)	Manpower, your work, our job
Additional information	113	8 (7.1%)	4 (3.5%)	0.65 (2.27)	8.36 (3.73)	5.8 (20.3)	Benefits Package
Contact information	112	44 (39.3%)	4 (3.6%)	1.26 (2.71)	12.54 (5.66)	9.3 (21.0)	Huxley Associates
Links	113	46 (40.7%)	4 (3.5%)	1.97 (5.04)	21.87 (6.94)	7.8 (18.6)	Scientific Resources
Total	113	100 (88.5%)	-	50.43 (98.19)	275.3 (155.46)	15.9 (28.2)	

Note. ^aThe percentages refer to the number of times a particular job ad element occurred. ^bIn the examples the English words are underlined.

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A general conclusion is that the frequency of English varied in the various elements of the job advertisements. Others (e.g. Alm, 2003; Bhatia, 2001; Cheshire & Moser, 1994) have reported similar findings for English in the elements of product advertisements in non-English-speaking countries. In our sample, there was generally more English in *job titles* and *logos* than in the other job ad elements. The finding for job titles is in accord with Schreiner (1990), who compiled a long list of English job titles in use in the Netherlands. It is also in partial agreement with the finding in Korzilius et al. (2006) that in job ads from *de Volkskrant* the concentration of English was higher in the elements job title, headline and especially end line than it was in the other job ad elements [see Section 6.2.3], particularly so when we recall that that in our sample there were no end lines and hardly any headlines. The preponderance of English in job titles and logos would also appear to link up with the remark by Cheshire and Moser (199, p. 457) that “the English words usually appear in key positions in the advertisements” (see De Witte, 1989, p. 212 for eye movement research which indicates that the job title is the element that makes readers of job advertisements in newspapers decide whether to read on.)

Does the amount of English in the job advertisement depend on the economic sector of the organization with the vacancy?

The majority ($n = 69$) of the 113 job ads not completely in English were for jobs in organizations from the following four economic sectors (according to the CBS 1993 classification at section level): Commercial Services (23 ads, e.g. commercial ICT companies); Financial Institutions (19 ads, e.g. banks); Transport, Storage and Communications (15 ads, e.g. telecommunications); Environmental Services, Culture, Recreation and Other Services (12 ads, e.g. commercial provision of labour). Each of these sectors accounted for more than 10% of the 113 job ads, with the other sectors that could be distinguished accounting for 6% or less. For ten advertisements (9%), it was impossible to determine the economic sector of the organization with the vacancy.

If the four sectors with the largest number of not-completely-English job ads are ranked by concentration of English in the total job ad, the order is (from high to low): Transport etc. ($M = 35\%$, $SD = 38\%$); Commercial

Services ($M = 25\%$, $SD = 31\%$); Environmental Services etc. ($M = 16\%$, $SD = 28\%$); and Financial Institutions ($M = 2\%$, $SD = 2\%$). A Kruskal-Wallis test showed that there were significant inter-sector differences in the concentration of English ($\chi^2(3) = 16.80$, $p < .01$). Further analyses (pairwise comparisons using Mann-Whitney tests with a Bonferroni correction of $\alpha < .008$) revealed that advertisements for jobs in the Financial Institutions sector contained less English than ads in the Transport, Storage and Communications and the Commercial Services sectors.

It can be concluded that the economic sector of the organization with the job vacancy does have an effect on the extent to which English was used in the Monsterboard.nl job advertisements. This confirms observations that the use of English in Dutch society generally is domain-specific (Claus & Taeldeman, 1989; Van der Sijs, 1996), and is in line with studies demonstrating that English in advertising in non-English-speaking countries is used more for certain types of products than for others (e.g. Cheshire & Moser, 1994; Griffin, 1997). Our finding that less English occurred in advertisements for jobs in the Financial Institutions sector than in the Transport, Storage and Communications and the Commercial Services sectors may be attributable to the fact that the latter two sectors contain organizations involved in ICT, a domain in which much of the jargon is English (cf. Van der Sijs, 1996, p. 322).

Does the amount of English used in job advertisements depend on the level of the job advertised?

Classifying the 113 not-completely-English job advertisements according to the Standard Job Classification of the Dutch Bureau of Statistics (CBS, 1992) revealed that there were two elementary-level jobs, 44 (39%) medium-level jobs and 67 (59%) higher-level and academic jobs. We compared the jobs at medium level with those at higher/academic level, in terms of the concentration of English in the total job ad. The ads for medium-level jobs contained less English ($M = 7\%$, $SD = 20\%$) than the ads for higher-level and academic jobs ($M = 22\%$, $SD = 32\%$; $Z = 2.73$, $p < .01$, tested with the Mann-Whitney test).

Although the differences in socio-economic and educational status between potential applicants for medium-level and higher-level/academic

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positions are not extreme, this finding is in line with claims from Ecuadorian advertising agencies that they use English especially in product advertisements targeting consumers with a high socio-economic status, and avoid using it when targeting less-educated lower and lower middle class groups (Alm, 2003). Since English in advertising in non-English-speaking countries is claimed to be associated with prestige (e.g. Haarmann, 1989, p. 234), the greater use of English we found in advertisements for higher-level and academic jobs may reflect the higher prestige of these jobs compared with medium-level jobs.

Does the amount of English used in job advertisements depend on the multinational status of the organizations offering the vacancies?

All five of the completely English advertisements in our sample of 120 job ads were for jobs with multinational organizations. Of the 113 ads that were not fully in English but partly or wholly in Dutch, 48 (42.5%) were for jobs in multinationals and 13 (11.5%) were for jobs in domestic organizations. For the remaining 52 cases (46%), the status of the organization on this point was unknown. Ranking these three categories of organization according to the concentration of English in the total job ad gave (from high to low): multinational organizations ($M = 26\%$, $SD = 34\%$); organizations of unknown status ($M = 9\%$, $SD = 20\%$); and domestic organizations ($M = 8\%$, $SD = 25\%$). A Kruskal-Wallis test showed that there were significant differences in the concentration of English among the three categories of organization ($\chi^2(2) = 17.30$, $p < .001$). Pairwise testing with Mann-Whitney tests (with a Bonferroni correction of $\alpha < .017$) revealed that the job ads placed by the multinational organizations contained significantly more English than the ads placed by the other two categories of organization.

This finding corroborates earlier findings for *de Volkskrant*. In that newspaper, too, English was used more in job advertisements from multinational organizations than in ads from domestic organizations (Korzilius et al., 2006 [see Section 6.2.3]). This is in line with claims that multinational organizations use English to internationally standardize terms, job titles, slogans, and product and organizational names in (job) advertisements published in different countries (Alm, 2003; Larson, 1990).

What percentage of English words in Dutch job ads on Monsterboard.nl should be easy to understand for Dutch readers with at least a basic knowledge of English, either because these words are part of basic English vocabulary, or because they have Dutch cognates?

The not completely English parts of the 113 partly English advertisements contained 290 different English words. A minority of these 290 English words (91; 31.4%) were included in the 'Defining Vocabulary' of Summers (1998). A larger number, but still a minority (118; 40.7%) fell in the two highest frequency categories of words in Sinclair (1995). A majority (169 words; 58.3%) had a Dutch cognate. About one fifth (59; 20.3%) met all three of these criteria intended to indicate whether an English word should be easy to understand for Dutch readers with at least a basic knowledge of English, and 79.7% (231 words) met one of these criteria. This indicates that a majority of these words should indeed be easy to understand for such readers, just as was found to be the case for the English words used in Swiss product advertisements in relation to their Swiss readers (Cheshire & Moser, 1994, pp. 457-458).

What percentage of English words in Dutch job ads on Monsterboard.nl have Dutch equivalents?

For a majority of the 290 English words in the not completely English parts of the 113 partly English advertisements (190; 65.5%), a Dutch translation could be found which fully covered the meaning of the English original, for instance "klant" for "customer" and "wagenpark" for "fleet". These findings support the view that English words in advertisements in EFL countries are not just used to fill lexical gaps, but that there are other reasons for their use, such as the association of English with prestige (e.g. Alm, 2003, p. 151; Haarmann, 1989, pp. 234, 257; Larson, 1990, pp. 367-368; Takashi, 1990, pp. 330-332) or the desire to create consistency in the communication of international organizations in different countries (e.g. Alm, 2003, p. 150; Larson, 1990, pp. 367-368).

6.3.4 General conclusions

We set out to analyse the use of English in job advertisements on the Dutch job site Monsterboard.nl, and especially to test whether this depended on factors that were claimed by previous researchers to determine the use of English in non-English-speaking countries, particularly in product advertising and print-medium job ads. The results reported above indicate that most of the factors mentioned in the literature were indeed relevant to the use of English in our sample of Monsterboard.nl job ads. We found that the extent to which English was used depended on the job ad element, on the sector of the organization with the vacancy, on the multinational status of the organization, on the level of the job that was advertised, and on the potential level of difficulty of English word for Dutch readers with at least a basic knowledge of English, but only in a minority of cases on the absence of Dutch equivalents for the English words used.

Our findings can be summarized as follows. English was used in the majority of advertisements on Monsterboard.nl. Job titles and logos contained more English than other job ad elements. There was more English in ads from the Transport, Storage and Communications and the Commercial Services sectors than in ads from the Financial Institutions sector. English was used to a greater extent in ads from multinational organizations than in ads from domestic organizations. Ads for higher-level and academic jobs contained more English than ads for medium-level jobs. The majority of the English words used should be easy to understand for Dutch readers with at least a basic knowledge of English, because they are part of basic English vocabulary or because they have Dutch cognates. For the majority of the English words used, Dutch equivalents could be found.

English words were used in more job advertisements on Monsterboard.nl than in the Dutch national paper *de Volkskrant* (Korzilius et al., 2006 [Section 6.2 above]). Three of the factors that determine differences in the use of English in Monsterboard ads may also explain differences in the use of English between Monsterboard ads and *de Volkskrant* ads, thus providing further evidence of the relevance of these factors. First of all, more job ads on Monsterboard.nl than in *de Volkskrant* were placed by multinational organizations. Secondly, more advertisements on Monsterboard.nl than in *de Volkskrant* were for jobs in the Transport, Storage

and Communication sector: a sector whose job ads contained a relatively large concentration of English words. Finally, job ad elements in Monsterboard.nl ads that contained a relatively large concentration of English (contact information, links) were not found in ads from *de Volkskrant*.

English was also used more frequently in Monsterboard job ads than in commercials on Dutch television (Gerritsen et al., 2000) and product advertisements from the Dutch glossy magazine *Elle* (Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007). It was not possible to ascertain whether the above-mentioned factors play a role here, because for these commercials and product ads we have no data on the sectors and nationality of the advertisers, or about the level (e.g. price) of the products advertised.

One potential limitation of our study is the method we used to determine whether a word is English. We may have been too liberal when classifying words as Dutch and too strict when classifying words as English. Certain other studies of the use of English in countries where English is not the primary language (e.g. Griffin, 1997; Martin, 2002) have used a broader definition of what is to be considered English, which does not take into account the extent of a word's integration into the receiving language as evidenced by the word's inclusion in an authoritative dictionary of the national language, or by the use of non-English spelling. Our assumption was that if words of English origin were spelled the Dutch way or were in the Dutch Van Dale dictionary (Geerts et al., 1999), they were part of the Dutch language. Clearly, a less restrictive definition of English would increase the number of English words in our sample of job advertisements. Thus, if words of English origin included in Geerts et al. and words of English origin spelled the Dutch way had been counted as English, the proportion of ads not completely in English containing at least one English word would have risen from 88.5% to 100%.

A second limitation of our study concerns our analysis of the potential difficulty and presence or absence of equivalents of the English words used in the advertisements. This was restricted to English words in not completely English parts of partly English ads. This decision was taken because in completely English parts, the difficulty and translatability the English used depends not only on the individual words, but on the English context in which they occur. Whether Dutch readers actually find English

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words in job ads difficult or easy can obviously not be determined on the basis of a corpus analysis but only on the basis of experiments.

Given that differences have been found among a number of non-English-speaking European Union countries in the use of English in product advertising (Gerritsen, 1995; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007), it would be interesting to compare the use of English in job advertisements aimed at job seekers in the Netherlands with the use of English in job advertisements aimed at job seekers in other countries where English is not the primary language.

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Appendix 6.3: Criteria used to determine whether a word in a partly Dutch job advertisement was English or Dutch

If a job advertisement was not completely in English but partly in Dutch, we classified as English any word found in an English dictionary or on an English website, providing it did not occur (in the intended meaning) in the thirteenth edition of the Van Dale dictionary of the Dutch language (Geerts et al., 1999),¹⁷ and had not been spelled according to Dutch conventions. Our rationale was that words of English origin included in the Van Dale dictionary could be considered loanwords that had been accepted as part of the Dutch language, and that words spelled the Dutch way would not be encountered in this form in English.¹⁸ Examples:

- Because ‘consultant’, ‘engineering’, ‘manager’, ‘service’, ‘support’ and ‘team’ are included in Geerts et al. in the sense intended in the job ads, they were classified as Dutch, not English.
- ‘Professional’ was always classified as an English word, because in the job ads it was used in the sense of “someone who does a job requiring special education” or “someone who is very experienced, has a lot of knowledge, and does things very skillfully” (Summers, 2000), and not of “someone who practices a sport as profession” (“iem. die een tak van sport als beroep uitoefent”), as it is defined in Geerts et al..
- Because the compound noun ‘teampayer’ was written as one word (and not as two separate words), in accordance with Dutch spelling conventions (see, for example, Burrough-Boenisch, 2004, pp. 71-73), it was classified as Dutch, not English. Similarly, a compound noun formed from an English word plus a Dutch word was classified as Dutch. Thus, the word ‘huntersmentaliteit’ (‘hunter’s mentality’) was classified as Dutch.

¹⁷ This dictionary uses ‘[Eng]’ to indicate words of English origin.

¹⁸ Originally, we had stipulated that if an English word was inflected, conjugated or spelled in accordance with Dutch language rules, it would be classified as Dutch. However, our sample of Monsterboard job ads contained no examples of English words not included in Geerts et al. that were inflected or conjugated according to Dutch grammar rules. (An example of such a word from a *de Volkskrant* job ad was the past participle ‘ge-outsourced’, with its Dutch prefix ‘ge’, which was classified as a Dutch word; see Korzilius et al., 2006).

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If a phrase or sentence in a partly Dutch job advertisement was completely in English, that is, all its component words could be found in an English dictionary or on an English website, and the grammar and syntax were English, all the words in the phrase/sentence were classified as English, even though out of this context they could also be Dutch.

- For example, in a not-completely-English advertisement, the word 'CV' in the sentence "Please send your CV to ..." was counted as an English word even though 'CV' is also a Dutch word. Another not-completely-English ad included the sentence "Click here to apply direct or contact [name] of Computer Future Solutions, phone number [...] if you have any questions." All the words in that sentence were classified as English.
- Since sequences of nouns are possible both in English and in Dutch, we analysed each noun in such a sequence separately. Thus in 'business opportunities', 'business' was classified as Dutch because it is in Geerts et al. (1999), but 'opportunities' was classified as English because it is not.

Unless it was being used in a completely English job ad, an English proper name was not classified as an English word because in the case of names there is usually no choice between a Dutch and an English variant, since the name of a person or an organization is usually 'a given'. However, if the name of an organization, department or product contained *meaningful* English words, these were classified as English, since in these cases a non-English option was available (for the importance of English words in names in product advertising and other commercial contexts in non-English countries, see also, for example, Alm, 2003, and Bhatia, 2001).

- For example, 'Logistics' in the company name 'Hays Logistics' and the abbreviation 'VBA' (Visual Basic for Applications) used as the name of the ICT product were each counted as one English word. 'Hays', however, was not counted as an English word, because it was a proper name without meaning.

The English monolingual dictionaries we used to determine whether a word was English included the *Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture* (Summers, 1998) and the *Longman Business English Dictionary* (Summers, 2000). If a word was not in either of these dictionaries, we used the 'advanced search' option of the Google search engine ('language: English'; 'site: UK') to find out if it was used on an English-language UK website.

Figure 6.2 shows a Dutch job advertisement in which the words we classified as English have been underlined. English is used in the company information sections ('Travel Active'; 'High School'), job title ('Program', 'Work', 'Travel'), job description ('Sales', 'Operations'), job requirements ('MS Office'), offer ('Travel Active'), application procedure section ('Managing Director'), contact information and links sections ('Travel Active'). The advertisement also contains words of English origin that we did not classify as English because they were included in Geerts et al. (1999) in the sense intended in the job ad: 'manager(s)' (in the job title and the job description), 'team' (in the offer), 'e-mail(en)' (in the application procedure and the links), 'full time' (in additional information), and 'fax' (in contact information). The word 'staff' in the application procedure and contact information sections was not classified as English, because it was part of 'staff@travelactive.nl', which we treated as a closed compound containing a Dutch word ('nl').

1	<u>Travel Active</u>
2,3	NL-Limburg-<u>Program</u> Managers <u>Work</u> & <u>Travel</u>
1	<u>Travel Active</u> is Nederlands grootste uitwisselingsorganisatie. Naast werkvakanties in o.a. Europa, Amerika, Afrika, Australië en Nieuw-Zeeland, verzorgen wij <u>High School</u> , Au Pair en Talenreisprogramma's in alle windrichtingen. Voor ons kantoor in Venray zoeken wij:
3	<u>PROGRAM MANAGERS WORK & TRAVEL</u>
4	Jij bent... die enthousiaste, zelfstandig werkende collega met het scherpe commerciële inzicht. Je bent verantwoordelijk voor het verkopen, samenstellen en ontwikkelen van het programma en de additionele producten. Tevens draag je zorg voor de totale verwerking van het programma met betrekking tot de deelnemer. Je rapporteert aan de <u>Sales & Operations</u> Manager. Je weet wat er leeft in de (jongeren)markt, signaleert kansen en handelt overeenkomstig. Je bent verkoop-, kwaliteits- en resultaatgericht.
5	Wij zoeken een collega met... <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • een toeristische of commerciële opleiding op MBO+/HBO niveau • ervaring in het werken met <u>MS Office</u>, een relatiebeheersysteem en het Amadeus reserveringssysteem • internationale ervaring opgedaan specifiek tijdens een

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	<p>werkvakantie in Australië én een collega met internationale ervaring opgedaan tijdens een werk-, studie-, stage of uitwisselingsprogramma</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• uitstekende spreek- en schrijfvaardigheid van minimaal de Nederlandse en Engelse taal
6	<p><u>Travel Active</u> biedt een leuke, afwisselende baan binnen een jong, enthousiast team. Collegialiteit en samenwerking gaan hand-in-hand met een professionele attitude. Het salaris en de secundaire arbeidsvoorwaarden staan in verhouding tot de functie.</p>
7	<p>Reageer! Stuur je brief en CV per post voor 07-02-2004 naar <u>Travel Active</u>, ter attentie van Mark A. Maasdam, <u>Managing Director</u>, Postbus 107, 5800 AC Venray. E-mailen kan ook, naar staff@travelactive.nl Wil je meer informatie over de bovenstaande functie? Bel dan naar (0487) 551 901.</p>
8	<p>Aanvullende Informatie Type: Full Time, Permanent</p>
9	<p>Contact Informatie Mariëlle Alders staff@travelactive.nl <u>Travel Active</u> Postbus 107 Venray Limburg 5800 AC Tel : 0478-551900 Fax : 0478-551911</p>
10	<p>Klik hier voor alle vacatures van "<u>Travel Active</u>" E-mail deze vacature naar een vriend</p>
	<p>SOLLICITEER DIRECT</p>

Figure 6.2. Example of a job advertisement found on Monsterboard.nl on 17 February 2004. *Note.* Words we classified as English are underlined. Legend (advertisement elements): 1 = Company information; 2 = Location; 3 = Job title; 4 = Job description; 5 = Job requirements; 6 = Offer; 7 = Application procedure; 8 = Additional information; 9 = Contact information; 10 = Links.

6.4 Corpus studies: Conclusion and discussion

6.4.1 Summary of findings

The aim of the two studies reported in this chapter was to investigate the extent to which English was used in job advertisements published in two media mainly targeted at higher educated job seekers, *de Volkskrant* and Monsterboard (RQ 4), and to determine factors that may influence the extent to which it was used (RQ 5).

In answer to RQ 4, the findings regarding the extent to which English was used in a random sample of 120 job ads in each of the two corpora can be summarised as follows. It was found that 40% of the job ads in *de Volkskrant* and 87.5% of the job ads on Monsterboard contained English (RQ 4a). The percentage of completely English ads was 0.8% and 4%, respectively (RQ 4b). The percentage of partly English ads was 39% in *de Volkskrant* and 83% on Monsterboard (RQ 4c). The average percentage of English words in partly English ads was 1.8% in *de Volkskrant* and 17.9% on Monsterboard (RQ 4d). It can be concluded that English was used extensively but that completely English ads were only used in a small minority of cases. English was used more extensively in ads on Monsterboard than in *de Volkskrant*.

As for RQ 5, nearly all the factors investigated were indeed found to determine the extent to which English was used. More specifically, an organisation's multinational status (RQ 5a), the sector to which an organisation belongs (RQ 5b), the educational level required for the position advertised (RQ 5c), the elements of an advertisement (RQ 5d), and the potential level of difficulty of English words (RQ 5f) were all found to affect the use of English in at least one of the corpora. However, in both corpora, the absence of Dutch translation equivalents could be said to be a factor in only a minority of cases (RQ 5e). To begin with *multinational status*, in both *de Volkskrant* and Monsterboard, the extent to which English was used was greater in job ads placed by multinational organisations than by domestic organisations. With regard to *sector*, in the Monsterboard corpus, English was used more extensively in advertisements from the Transport, Storage

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and Communications sector and from the Commercial Services sector than from the Financial Institutions sector, but there was no difference in the extent to which English was used in different sectors in the *de Volkskrant* corpus. As far as *educational level* was concerned, in advertisements from Monsterboard, English was used more for higher and academic positions than for medium-level positions, while in the *de Volkskrant* ads there was no difference in the extent to which English was used between different job levels. Regarding *job ad elements*, in both the *de Volkskrant* and the Monsterboard corpus, the proportion of English words was higher in job titles than in other parts of the ads. With respect to the *potential level of difficulty* of the English words used, the majority of English words in both corpora were found to be potentially relatively easy to understand for Dutch readers with a basic knowledge of English, because they had Dutch cognates and/or were among the most frequent words in the English language. Finally, for a majority of the English words in both corpora *Dutch translation equivalents* could be found.

As the above summary of findings has indicated, not all the factors investigated had the same effects in the Monsterboard and *de Volkskrant* corpus. Two factors influenced the extent to which English was used only in the Monsterboard advertisements and not in the ads from *de Volkskrant*, i.e. the educational level required for the position advertised, and the sector of the organisation with the vacancy.

One can only speculate why the effects of these two factors were not the same in the two corpora. A possible explanation for the absence of differences in the extent to which English was used in advertisements for *different-level jobs* in *de Volkskrant* may be the fact that the jobs in this corpus were far more homogeneous in terms of the educational levels that were required than the jobs in the Monsterboard corpus. Only a small proportion of the jobs in the *de Volkskrant* ads were medium-level jobs and the vast majority were jobs at higher and academic level (see Section 6.2.3), while in the Monsterboard ads the proportion of medium-level jobs was higher and more similar to that of higher- and academic-level jobs (see Section 6.3.3).

The finding that there were differences between *sectors* in the extent to which English was used in the Monsterboard corpus but not in the *de Volkskrant* corpus may be due to the fact that the sectors that were investigated in the two corpora (i.e. the sectors represented with sizeable

numbers of ads) were partly different. The sectors Public Administration, Health and Education were represented with relatively large numbers of ads in the *de Volkskrant* corpus but not in the Monsterboard corpus, and the sectors Financial Institutions and Transport, Storage and Communications were represented with relatively large numbers of ads in the Monsterboard corpus but not in the *de Volkskrant* corpus (see Sections 6.2.3 and 6.3.3). In the Monsterboard corpus, ads from the Financial Institutions sector contained significantly less English than the Transport, Storage and Communications and the Commercial Services sectors. Thus, the differences between sectors in the extent to which English was used in the Monsterboard corpus involved two sectors that were not included in the comparison of sectors in the *de Volkskrant* corpus, as they were not represented with large numbers of ads in the latter corpus.

6.4.2 Conclusions about the theoretical model of the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands

The corpus findings show that a number of non-symbolic reasons identified in the model in Chapter 1.3 determined the extent to which English is used in job advertisements in the Netherlands, that is to say factors that were objectively observable in the advertisement or the real world outside the advertisement. The factors involved relate to characteristics of the *sender* of the job ad message (the multinational status of the organisation), of the job ad *message* itself (the educational level required for the job that is advertised, the job ad element concerned, the level of difficulty of the English words in the ad), and of the *context* of the organisation that placed the ad (the sector to which it belonged). It could also be argued that the educational level required for the job is linked to characteristics of the *receivers* of the job ad message, i.e. their level of education.

As was pointed out in Chapter 4.2.2, the corpus analyses reported in the current chapter did not investigate the effect of symbolic reasons, because such reasons involve qualities or characteristics that are not objectively observable, and, were, therefore, not considered suited for corpus analyses. The findings show that non-symbolic reasons definitely play a part in determining the extent to which English was used. However, this does not mean that symbolic reasons may not play a part. The fact that

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the corpus analyses show that the majority of English words in the ads had Dutch translation equivalents leaves open the possibility that the words were chosen for symbolic reasons. One such symbolic reason is the image- and prestige-enhancing qualities of such English words, mentioned by the Dutch makers of job ads in the interviews reported in Chapter 5.3.3.2 and also discussed in the literature on English in job advertisements and product ads in EFL countries reported in Chapter 3.2.1 (for job ads, see e.g. Larson, 1990, pp. 367; Seitz, 2008, p. 42; Tiggeler & Doeve, n.d. [2005], p. 67; for product ads, see e.g. Alm, 2003, p. 151 Gerritsen et al., 2000, p. 20; Haarmann, 1989, pp. 234, 257; Takashi, 1990, pp. 330-331). Another symbolic reason mentioned by the Dutch job ad makers in Chapter 5.3.3.2 that may account for the use of English words instead of their Dutch translation equivalents is that they felt these English words sounded better than Dutch counterparts, a motivation which is also given in the literature on English in product advertising (Fink et al., 1995, pp. 214, 231; Masavisut et al., 1986, p. 203; Wetzler, 2006, p. 310).

6.4.3 The contribution of the current corpus analyses to research into English in job advertising and product advertising in EFL countries

The two corpus analyses reported here have made a number of contributions to research in the field of English in job and product advertising in EFL countries. Most notably, they have filled a gap in research into English in job advertising. While previous research in this area has only investigated the frequency of English gender-neutral terms in job titles in job ad headings (Gerritsen, 2001, 2002), the current studies have researched the use of English in job ads as a whole and have investigated factors that may determine the frequency of this use. The findings of the current studies confirm claims about the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands and other EFL countries that were formulated on the basis of incidental observations. They substantiate claims about the frequency of the use of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands that had not been empirically investigated before (Nortier, 2009, p. 24; Renkema et al., 2001, p. 257; Schreiner, 1990, p. 7). They also validate the relevance of factors claimed to be relevant to the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands and other

EFL countries which had not been researched quantitatively, i.e. the observations that English was used in multinational organisations to create international consistency (Larson, 1990, pp. 367-368), that the use of English was influenced by the sector to which organisations belong (cf. Watts, 2002, p. 118), and that it was widespread in job titles (Schreiner, 1990, p. 7).

The findings of the two corpus studies for job ads in *de Volkskrant* and on Monsterboard are also largely in line with empirical quantitative research relating to the use of English in *product ads* in EFL countries. Similar to the two corpus analyses of job ads, such research has shown that English was used more in advertisements published by non-domestic organisations (Griffin, 1997, p. 37), that the use of English varied depending on the elements of the advertisement (Alm, 2003, p. 149; Bhatia, 2001, pp. 203-207; Cheshire & Moser, 1994, p. 456; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van Hooft, et al., 2007, p. 305), that the majority of English words used would be relatively easy to understand because they belonged to the basic vocabulary that learners of English were expected to know, and/or had cognates in the national language (Cheshire & Moser, 1994, pp. 457-458), and that only a minority of English words used had no translation equivalents in the first language of the country where the ads were published (Takashi, 1990, p. 331).

There is no direct parallel in product ad research for the finding that the extent to which English is used in job ads depends on the sectors to which organisations belong. However, a number of studies have shown that English is used more in ads for *particular* types of product (Cheshire & Moser 1994, p. 459; Griffin 1997, p. 37; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van Hooft, et al., 2007, p. 306). In other words, in both job ads and product ads, the domain in which the organisation operates has been shown to determine the extent to which English is used, which links up with the more general finding that English words are more common in certain domains of Dutch society than in others (Claus & Taeldeman, 1989, pp. 22-27; Van der Sijs, 1996, pp. 315-323). Whereas the corpus analyses reported here show that the educational level required for the position advertised affected the extent to which English was used in job ads, there has been no similar empirical quantitative research in the area of product ads. However, the finding that more English was used in job advertisements for higher-level positions is in line with remarks by makers of product ads in Ecuador that they would avoid using English for target groups with poor educational backgrounds

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(Alm, 2003, p. 151), and with Alm's finding that in shop names in Ecuador the extent to which English is used "*increases with the social class of the shopping centres' clientele*" (2003, p. 147; italics in the original).

As was pointed out in Chapter 1.3, the model of the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands was developed primarily on the basis of literature about English in product advertisements in EFL countries. The fact that the findings of the current corpus analyses largely parallel those of earlier studies into English product ads show that it was legitimate to apply reasons given for the use of English in product ads to English in job ads.

6.4.4 Limitations and suggestions for further research

The two corpus analyses reported in this chapter have a number of limitations. Firstly, not all possible non-symbolic reasons for the use of English suggested in the literature and in the interviews were investigated. One factor that could have been investigated is to what extent the English words and phrases used were shorter than possible Dutch translation equivalents. Brevity and conciseness are mentioned as reasons for the use of English in the literature on product advertising in EFL countries (Baker & Van Gelder, 1997, p. 36; Fink et al, 1995, pp. 176, 231; Friedrich, 2002, p. 22; König, 1974, as cited in Viereck, 1980, p. 252; Wetzler, 2006, pp. 300, 308-309). These characteristics were also mentioned as reasons for using English instead of Dutch words and phrases in the interviews with makers of partly Dutch job ads reported in Chapter 5.3.3.2. Another factor that could have been studied is to what extent the English words used were in common use in the Netherlands. Just like brevity and conciseness, common usage of English words in EFL countries was mentioned as a reason for the use of English in product advertising (Baker & Van Gelder, 1997, p. 36; Clyne, 1973, pp. 164-165; Fink et al, 1995, pp. 176, 231; Sella, 1993, p. 91; Wetzler, 2006, pp. 303, 308) and as a reason for the use of English terms in Dutch job ads in the interviews described in Chapter 5.3.3.2.

Another limitation that should be mentioned is that the non-symbolic factors investigated in the two studies were considered as independent variables. The question is whether these factors are not interdependent. It may, for instance, be the case that international organisations place more advertisements for higher level positions than

domestic organisations do, and that it is this *combination* of factors, rather than each individual factor, that leads to a greater use of English. When this interdependence was tested (Van Meurs, Korzilius, & Den Hollander, 2006a, pp. 221-222), it was found that there were too few observations for the combinations of factors to justify statistical generalisation. Using larger samples of ads, future research should investigate whether these factors are indeed interdependent, and, if so, how such interdependence influences the extent to which English is used.

A third limitation is to do with the educational level of the target group of the ads analysed in the two corpus studies. Although the ads not only offered high-level and academic level jobs but also, to a lesser extent, medium-level jobs, the two corpus analyses deal with media that mainly target highly educated job seekers. It may be useful for future corpus analyses to investigate the use of English in job ads for job seekers with a lower level of education. The use of English in advertisements for this target group may be different from that in ads for a more highly educated target group, for instance because makers of job ads avoid using English in advertisements for this target group, suspecting that it may lead to comprehension problems (cf. Alm, 2003, for similar comments about product ads in Ecuador).

Finally, the two corpus studies have determined the potential level of difficulty of the English words used in the ads by investigating how frequently they were used in the English language, whether they were used in the defining vocabulary of a dictionary aimed at learners of English, and whether they had Dutch cognates. How well Dutch readers of job ads understand English terms can obviously not be determined through corpus analyses but only through experiments. This is one of the issues that will be addressed in Chapter 7.

Chapter 7 – The effects of the use of English in job advertisements on their Dutch target groups: Experiments involving receivers of job ad messages

7.1 Introduction

As was pointed out in Chapter 3, there have been a number of claims, based on incidental observations, about the effects of English in job advertisements in EFL countries, including the Netherlands. English has been claimed to be prestige-enhancing, particularly in job titles (Larson, 1990; Peereboom, 1991; Seitz, 2008), while its effects have also been described as negative, that is, as exaggerated (Peereboom, 1991) and as leading to a lack of clarity (Jansen, 2006; Seitz, 2008; Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2003). There has only been one study which has experimentally investigated the effects of English in job ads on Dutch respondents (Renkema et al., 2001). However, this study did not take into account its effect on comprehension, and it did not investigate the effects of completely English ads, but only of partly English ads compared to completely Dutch ads.

In this chapter, the impact of all three types of job advertisement – all-English, partly English, and all-Dutch – will be studied, because it was argued that theoretically each type may produce different effects on the readers (see Chapter 4.3.5), and because each type was found in the corpus analyses of job ads in *de Volkskrant* and on Monsterboard reported in Chapter 6. In addition, the interviews with Dutch makers of job advertisements reported in Chapter 5 showed that they gave a number of reasons for their language use indicating effects that were unique to each of the types. Unlike the other two types, all-English ads were used to convey that the organisation was international and that the position involved work abroad (Chapter 5.3.3.1). As for effects that were unique to partly English ads, some interviewees said that they used English words in otherwise Dutch job ads were used to signal the status and modernity of the position, to make the ad more attractive, and because English words sound better than their Dutch equivalents (Chapter 5.3.3.2). A number of effects were mentioned that were unique to all-Dutch ads (Chapter 5.3.3.3). Such ads signalled the organisation was down-to-earth and not international, and

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they indicated the position did not have more status than it had. Dutch words sounded better than their English counterparts and were not exaggerated. Dutch words were used because they were clearer than their English equivalents.

The studies reported in this chapter aim to explore the effects of the use of English in job ads through experiments with all-English, partly English, and all-Dutch versions of the same job ad. The job ads chosen were based on ads in the Dutch national daily newspaper *de Volkskrant* and on the Dutch job site Monsterboard. The Monsterboard job ad experiment was described from the perspective of genre analysis. In addition, a separate study was conducted to investigate the effect of English in *job titles* from Monsterboard job ads. The motivation for devoting a separate experiment to job titles was discussed in Chapter 4.4. An additional reason was that the corpus analyses of English in job ads in *de Volkskrant* and on Monsterboard revealed that job titles were one of the job ad elements with the highest concentration of English (see Chapter 6).

The three studies in this chapter address the research questions below, as formulated and motivated in Chapter 4.3 and 4.4. RQ 6 relates to full job ads, and RQ 7 relates to job titles.

- RQ 6: To what extent are there differences in the effects on Dutch respondents of all-English, partly-English and all-Dutch equivalent job advertisements in terms of *attitude towards the ad* (attractiveness; naturalness), *comprehension* (estimated comprehensibility of the ad; estimated and actual comprehension of the English and Dutch terms used), and *recruiting outcomes* (attitudes towards the organisation advertising the job; attitudes towards the job that is advertised; job pursuit intentions)?
- RQ 7: To what extent are there differences in the effect on Dutch respondents of the use of English or Dutch in job titles from job advertisements aimed at Dutch people in terms of *attitude to the job titles* (attractiveness, naturalness), *comprehensibility*, and *recruiting outcomes* (attitude to the job referred to by the title: prestige and attractiveness; evaluation of its international nature; evaluation of its gender orientation)?

Experiments involving receivers of job ad messages

In terms of the model of the role of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands discussed in Chapter 1.3.6, these questions relate to the effects of English on the *receivers* of the job ad message. They cover the effects of English on a number of elements identified in the model, i.e. attitudes to the job advertised, to the organisation with the vacancy, and to the job ad message itself, and the outcome of such attitudes, that is behavioural intentions, which in relation to job ads are job pursuit intentions. Most of the effects measured are connected with *symbolic* reasons for the use of English, as defined in Chapter 1.3.6, i.e. with suggesting qualities and characteristics that were not objectively observable in the advertisement or the real world outside the advertisement. The question is, for instance, whether English makes the job and the organization more attractive and more prestigious and makes the job ad itself more attractive, while the content presented is the same. One of the effects measured, however, is *non-symbolic*, because it is not to do with suggesting qualities and characteristics but with comprehension. Table 7.1 on p. 297 shows which of the effects measured were symbolic and which were non-symbolic.

In addition, the job title experiment investigated whether possible differences in the effects of English or Dutch in job ads could be explained by differences in associations evoked by English words and their Dutch counterparts, which were expected on the basis of the Conceptual Feature Model of the way different languages are stored in the brain (De Groot, 1992b; Kroll & De Groot, 1997; Van Hell & De Groot, 1998; see Chapter 4.4). Thus, the job title experiment also aimed to answer the following research question:

RQ 8: To what extent do English words from job titles evoke the same or different associations in Dutch respondents as Dutch translation equivalents?

Some associations evoked by English and Dutch words may correspond with characteristics and qualities that objectively observable in reality, and others with characteristics and qualities that are not objectively observable. These associations can, therefore, be labelled as both symbolic and non-symbolic effects.

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The research questions were motivated in Chapter 4.3 and 4.4 on the basis of literature. The interviews reported in Chapter 5 indicated the relevance to job ad makers of a number of the aspects investigated in RQ 6:

- attitude towards the ad. One maker of a partly English ad said he used English terms to make the advertisement more attractive (Chapter 5.3.3.2).
- comprehension. The majority of respondents who had placed all-Dutch ads stated that they had done so because such ads were clear, easy to understand and would prevent comprehension problems. Dutch terms were said to be clearer and more comprehensible than English terms would be (Chapter 5.3.3.3).
- attitudes towards the organisation. Makers of all-English and all-Dutch job advertisements said they placed such ads to express characteristics of the organisation where the vacancy was to be filled (Chapter 5.3.3.1 and 5.3.3.3).
- attitudes towards the position. Makers of all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job advertisements said they placed such ads to express characteristics of the position that was advertised (Chapter 5.3).

The interviews also indicated the relevance to job ad makers of a number of the aspects investigated in RQ 7 relating to the effects of English or Dutch job titles:

- comprehensibility. One respondent who had placed a partly English job ad said that the job title in the ad might not be clear to all the readers (Chapter 5.3.2).
- attitude to the job referred to by the title: prestige and evaluation of gender orientation. One interviewee who had placed a partly English ad remarked that a reason for using an English job title was that a position with an English title had more status than one with an equivalent Dutch title (Chapter 5.3.3.2). Another interviewee said that he had used an English job title in a partly English job ad because Dutch alternatives either explicitly referred to a male person or a female person (Chapter 5.3.3.2).

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The three experiments reported in this chapter were published previously as articles. Table 7.1 summarises to which research questions in the three studies the above-mentioned RQs 6, 7 and 8 correspond, to which elements of the model of the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands they relate, and whether they are to do with symbolic or non-symbolic effects.

Table 7.1. Research questions for the *de Volkskrant* job ad experiment, the Monsterboard job ad experiment and the job title experiment reported in Chapter 7

RQs 6, 7 and 8 of the dissertation as a whole	<i>De Volkskrant</i> job ad experiment	Monsterboard job ad experiment	Job title experiment	Element of the model to which the RQ relates	Type of effect
<i>RQ 6/7 Attitude to job ad/title</i>					
Attractiveness	RQ 1	RQ 2	RQ 2	job ad message	symbolic
Naturalness	RQ 1	RQ 2	RQ 2	job ad message	symbolic
<i>RQ 6/7 Comprehension</i>					
Comprehensibility of ad/title	RQ 1	RQ 2	RQ 2	comprehension of message	non-symbolic
Estimated comprehension of terms	RQ 3	RQ 3	RQ 2	comprehension of English	non-symbolic
Actual comprehension of terms	RQ 3	RQ 3	-	comprehension of English	non-symbolic
<i>RQ 6/7 Recruiting outcomes</i>					
Attitudes to organisation	RQ 2	RQ 1	-	organisation	symbolic
Attitudes to job	RQ 2	RQ 1	RQ 3	job	symbolic
Job pursuit intentions	RQ 2	RQ 1	-	behavioural intentions	symbolic
<i>RQ 8 Associations with job title</i>	-	-	RQ 1	job ad message	symbolic and non-symbolic

Note. '-' = not investigated

It was decided to conduct the experiments among highly educated respondents, that is, students at universities and institutes of higher

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vocational education (HBO, Hoger Beroepsonderwijs). One reason for doing this was that earlier research had shown that comprehension of English depends on educational level and that attitudes to English may vary depending on the educational level of the respondents. Various studies carried out in Germany have shown that less highly educated respondents understand English in product advertising less well than more highly educated respondents (Fink 1975, p. 198; Fink et al. 1995, pp. 133-134, 200, 202, 238, 259; Wetzler 2006, pp. 218-220). Gerritsen et al. (2000) and Smakman et al. (2009) showed this was also the case for Dutch respondents' understanding of English in TV commercials and radio commercials. Experimental findings for the relation between educational level and attitudes towards English are mixed. Wetzler (2006, pp. 238, 252) found no significant differences in the attitude to English words in German product ads between participants with different educational backgrounds. Similarly, Smakman et al. (2009) found no effects of level of education on image of the organisation, image of the product, intention to buy the product and intelligibility of the commercial, and only for one of the two commercials studied did respondents with a lower level of education find the partly English version significantly more attractive than those with a higher level of education. However, Gerritsen et al. (2000) showed that less highly educated Dutch respondents took a more negative attitude toward English in TV commercials than did more highly educated respondents. Withagen and Boves (1991), on the other hand, found that less highly educated Dutch respondents took a more positive attitude to English in texts of a general nature than more highly educated respondents did. In order to preclude possible effects of educational level on the comprehension and evaluation of job ads with or without English, it was therefore deemed necessary to keep the level of education of the respondents constant.

The reason for choosing university and HBO students rather than respondents with a lower educational level was that a survey of the labour market orientation activities of Dutch students showed print media and job sites were consulted by a larger percentage of students at the higher levels of tertiary education (universities and institutes of higher vocational education, HBO) compared to students at medium-level tertiary vocational education (MBO, Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs). Print media were consulted by 84% of university students, 77% of students of higher professional educational,

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and 71% of students of medium-level professional education. Job sites were consulted by 77% of university students, 70% of students of higher professional education, and 53% of students of medium-level professional education (NOA, 2008, p. 17).

The reason for basing the experiments on job ads from *de Volkskrant* and Monsterboard and on job titles from Monsterboard job ads was that *de Volkskrant* and Monsterboard reach a larger proportion of highly educated Dutch people than do comparable media (NOA, 2008, pp. 18, 21), as was discussed in Chapter 6.1.

This chapter will begin with an experiment involving a completely English, partly English and completely Dutch version of a job advertisement based on job ads in *de Volkskrant* (Section 7.2). This is followed by an experiment involving a completely English, partly English and completely Dutch version of a job advertisement based on job ads on Monsterboard (Section 7.3), and by an experiment involving only job titles based on job titles on Monsterboard (Section 7.4). The studies are presented in the chronological order in which they were published, as the latter two studies refer to the ones published earlier. The chapter will end with an overall conclusion (Section 7.5) in which the findings of the three studies are taken together and linked to the model of the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands.

7.2 The influence of the use of English in Dutch job advertisements: An experimental study into the effects on text evaluation, on attitudes towards the organization and the job, and on comprehension¹⁹

Frank van Meurs, Hubert Korzilius, José Hermans

Abstract

Several authors have claimed that the use of English in advertising for products and services in non-English-speaking countries is associated with prestige and an enhanced image. Similar claims have been made in relation to job advertisements. English terms are, for instance, said to make a job sound more appealing. The present study aims to test the effects of the use of English in Dutch job ads.

In a between-subjects experimental design, three manipulated versions of the same job ad were presented to potential applicants, students who either had just graduated or were close to graduation in a relevant field, 30 for each version. One version was completely in English, the second version contained 11 different English words, and the third version was completely in Dutch. The respondents answered questions on text evaluation, on their attitudes towards the organization and the job offered. In addition, they indicated the degree to which they understood the meaning of the 11 English words and phrases and their Dutch counterparts in their version of the ad, and paraphrased the meaning of these words and phrases.

¹⁹ This study was published as Van Meurs, Korzilius, and Hermans (2004), which is reprinted here with slight modifications. New publications details have been added for publications which were listed as “submitted” in the original article but which have now appeared. For references to articles that are included in this dissertation, cross references to the chapters and sections concerned have been added between square brackets. The references from the bibliography of the original article have been included in the list of references for the whole of this dissertation, which can be found on pp. 409-431.

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Results showed that there were no statistically significant differences between the scores of the three versions on the attractiveness and intelligibility of the ad as a whole, nor on respondents' attitudes towards the organization and the job offered. The Dutch version scored significantly better than the partly English version, but not significantly better than the completely English version, on the respondents' own estimation of their understanding of the manipulated words and phrases and on the number of correct paraphrases

One important conclusion is that, contrary to claims in the literature, the use of English instead of Dutch does not affect potential applicants' attitudes towards various aspects of the ad, the job and the organization, at least not in the case of young and highly educated respondents.

7.2.1 Introduction

Berns (1995) discusses the use of English in the European Union in terms of the model developed by Kachru (1985, 1992) to classify the spread of English throughout the world, with "inner circle" countries, where English is spoken as a first or primary language, "outer circle" countries, where English is not the first language but one of the official languages or state languages, and the "expanding circle" of countries where English functions as a foreign or international language. She puts the Netherlands – along with Germany and Luxemburg – in a special category of countries ("expanding/outer circle") where the English used is more than a foreign language or international language but serves functions "in various social, cultural, commercial and educational settings" (1995, pp. 8-9). Other authors have also observed that English is used increasingly in a number of domains of Dutch society, including the media (De Bot, 1994; Claus & Taldeman, 1989; Gerritsen & Nickerson, 2004; Ridder, 1995; Van der Sijs, 1996). English is used widely in the Dutch media by companies to communicate with their potential customers through advertising for products and services (see Gerritsen, 1995; Gerritsen, Korzilius, Van Meurs, & Gijbbers, 2000), in line with international developments. Piller (2003, p. 175) says that English is the most frequently used language in advertising messages in non-English-speaking countries (besides the local language, of course)".

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Several authors have commented on the use of English in another form of communication through the media between companies and their target groups in non-English-speaking countries: job advertisements in newspapers. Larson (1990) notes that the use of English is very obvious in Swedish job advertisements, particularly in work areas and job titles. Hilgendorf (1996, pp. 10-11) gives a number of examples of the use of job titles “reflecting varying degrees of Englishization” from job ads for positions advertised in German in the German newspaper *Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung*. That English is used increasingly in job advertisements in Dutch newspapers has been pointed out by Schreiner (1990) and Renkema, Vallen, & Hoeken (2001). Gerritsen (2001) shows that there was a statistically significant increase – from 60% to 81% – in the use of English gender neutral terms in job titles in the headings of job ads published in the Dutch national daily newspaper *De Telegraaf* and in the national weekly *Intermediair* between 1989 and 1999. Korzilius, Van Meurs, and Hermans (2006) found that 39% of job advertisements in the Dutch national paper *de Volkskrant* (published in August 2001) contained one or more English words, and that 2.4% of the job ads were completely in English [see Chapter 6.2.3].

One of the reasons that is frequently mentioned for the use of English in advertising for products and services in non-English-speaking countries is that it has prestige value (Friedrich, 2002, p. 22; Griffin, 1997, p. 38; Haarmann, 1989, p. 234). Its use is supposed to be good for the image of the product or service (Takashi, 1990, p. 329; Gerritsen et al., 2000, p. 20). This same point is made in one of the few articles that discusses reasons for the use of English in job advertisements in countries where English is not the first language or an official language. In connection with Swedish job ads, Larson (1990, p. 367) says that a common reason for organizations to use English is the image they are trying to convey. He even claims that “[o]ften a less attractive and maybe more mundane job can be made to sound more appealing and challenging using an English-sounding job title” (1990, p. 368). In relation to Dutch and French job advertisements published in Belgium, Heynderickx and Dieltjens (2002, p. 101) make a more tentative claim when they observe that the use of English is one of the aspects of language use that may affect potential applicants' motivation to apply.

As far as we know, these claims about the effects of the use of English in job advertisements in non-English-speaking countries have

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seldom been studied empirically (the only exception being Renkema et al., 2001, to be discussed below). The present study aims to investigate these effects. Since job advertisements in newspapers are the most widely used medium for recruiting new personnel in the Netherlands (Van Dalen 1999, p. 42), it is important for companies to know what impact the use of English in recruitment advertising actually has on potential applicants.

The current study links up with earlier research into the effects of the use of English in business communication through the Dutch media. Gerritsen (1996) studied respondents' comprehension and appreciation of completely English advertisements for products in Dutch newspapers and magazines. She found that respondents on average were not very positive about the English used, and that only 51 per cent of respondents were actually capable of translating the texts correctly. In a study into the effects of the use of English in Dutch television commercials, Gerritsen et al. (2000) found that respondents displayed a rather negative attitude towards the English used, and that only 36 per cent were able to paraphrase the meaning of the English words and phrases correctly. Renkema et al. (2001) found that the use of English instead of Dutch terms in job advertisements had no effect on respondents' evaluation of the image of the company and of the exclusivity of the job, nor on their appreciation of the text, although the use of English terms was considered less natural. Unlike Gerritsen (1996) and Gerritsen et al. (2000), Renkema et al. did not research respondents' understanding of the English terms used, and they did not use completely English texts.

The present study combines the approaches and research questions of the three above-mentioned studies. We have formulated the following research questions: what is the effect of the use of English as opposed to Dutch in job advertisements on respondents'

- evaluation of the text (intelligibility, attractiveness, and naturalness)?
- attitudes towards the organization and the job offered (image of the organization, attitudes towards working for the organization and towards the position offered, and interest in working for the company)?
- comprehension of the English and Dutch terms used?

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We study the effect of three degrees of the use of English: completely and partly English job ads and a job ad which is completely without English, i.e. a completely Dutch job ad.

7.2.2 Method

Design and respondents

In a between-subjects experimental design, three manipulated versions of a job ad were presented to potential applicants, 30 for each version. The number of respondents was based on a statistical power of .93, a large effect size and an alpha of .05 (cf. Cohen, 1992). One version was completely in English, the second version (henceforth the “partly English version”) contained 11 different English words, and the third version (“the Dutch version”) was completely in Dutch.

The 90 respondents were students at the Faculty of Social Sciences (Communication Studies, Management Studies) and Faculty of Arts (Communication and Information Studies; Dutch; Theatre, Film and Television Studies) of the Universities of Nijmegen and Utrecht, the Netherlands. These students were either in their final (third, fourth or higher) years of study or had just graduated. This particular criterion was used because it was thought that these respondents would be interested in job offers. The mean age of the respondents was 22.8 (min. = 20, max. = 34; $SD = 2.58$). There were 23 male and 67 female respondents. The native language of all respondents was Dutch. The respondents had had seven to eight years of formal training in English ($M = 7.73$; $SD = 2.75$).

Materials

The position advertised in the three versions of the job advertisement was that of a management trainee in the communication department of a fictitious bank. It was chosen because it was thought to be a job that would be suitable for and would appeal to the respondents.

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The English words used in the partly English version of the job advertisement and the length of the ad were based on an analysis of 119 job ads in the Dutch national newspaper *de Volkskrant*, published in August 2001 (Korzilius et al., 2006 [Chapter 6.2 above]). The completely English version, the partly English version, and the completely Dutch version of the ad contained 341, 340 and 345 words, respectively, compared to an average of 328 words for the ads in *de Volkskrant*. Seven of the eleven different English words were among the most frequent English words in the corpus studied: *management*, *professional*, *business*, *assessment*, *service*, *team* and *player* – in the combination *team player*). The four less frequent English words from the corpus were *finance*, *core* (used in the combination *core business*), *hands-on* (used in the combination *hands-on professional*) and *trainee* (used in the combination *management trainee*). These words were a mixture of lexical items of English origin included in the authoritative dictionary of the Dutch language, Van Dale (1999) – *assessment*, *business*, *corebusiness*, *management*, *service*, *team*, *trainee* – and English words that were not included, or not included in the right sense in that dictionary – *finance*, *core* (as a separate word in *core business*), *hands-on*, *professional*, *player*. This mixture was used because the job ads in the corpus from *de Volkskrant* also contained lexical items of English origin that were included in Van Dale as well as English words that were not included in this dictionary (see Korzilius et al., 2006 [Chapter 6.2 above]). The Dutch translations were found in the English-Dutch Van Dale dictionary (1997), in the corpus of job ads from *de Volkskrant* and on Dutch websites. For a list of the English terms and the Dutch equivalents used in the experiment, see Table 7.2.

Table 7.2. English terms and Dutch equivalents used in the experiment

English term	Dutch equivalent
Assessment	Psychologisch onderzoek
Core business	Kernactiviteit
Finance	Financiën
Hands-on professional	Praktijkgerichte deskundige
Management	Directie
Management trainee	Leidinggevende in opleiding
Service	Dienstverlening
Team player	U functioneert goed binnen een groep

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The completely English version was a direct translation of the partly English and completely Dutch versions, and included the 11 English words from the partly English version. The only major change was the use of the phrase “We are an equal opportunities employer” at the end of the completely English advertisement instead of the Dutch abbreviation “m/v” (literally “male/female”) after the job title in the other two versions to stress that no discrimination on gender would take place, in line with the conventions of English job advertisements. The naturalness and idiomaticity of the translation was checked by two native speakers of English. In accordance with the method recommended by Brislin (1980) to safeguard the equivalence of translated documents, the equivalence of the English translation and the original ad was checked by having an experienced translator translate the English translation back into Dutch. It turned out that there was a very high degree of agreement between the back translation and the original partly English and completely Dutch versions, but a discussion of the differences led to some minor changes in the final version of the completely English job advertisement.

The three versions of the job ad were pre-tested by experts, personnel officers, who were asked whether the texts seemed authentic and whether they contained anything that was unclear or unusual.

The partly English and the completely Dutch job advertisements were evaluated by two Dutch personnel officers, who were also asked explicitly for their views on the English words used in the partly English version. The only comment they had in connection with the authenticity of the ads was that the ads contained too much text. They considered the English words in the partly English version to be good equivalents of the Dutch words in the Dutch version, but they did comment that the phrase *hands-on professional* might be difficult to understand. On the basis of these comments, no changes in the design of the ads were deemed necessary, since the length of the ads was roughly the average length of the ads in our corpus, and since the aim of our study was precisely to determine whether potential applicants understand the English used in job ads.

The completely English job ad was pre-tested by an English native speaker human resources manager working for a multinational company in the Netherlands. He pointed out an awkward formulation, which was

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subsequently changed on the basis of his comments. He also commented on the content of the job ad, observing that it implied that the activities of the management trainee would be limited to the communication department, whereas the activities of management trainees would usually be more wide-ranging. However, we decided not to change this, because we wanted the completely English job ad to be equivalent to the partly English and completely Dutch versions in what it offered the successful applicant.

The versions of the job advertisement used in the experiment can be found in Appendix 7.1.

Instrumentation

Seven-point semantic differential scales were used to test the effect of the use of English or Dutch on text evaluation (the intelligibility, attractiveness and naturalness of the job ad), attitudes towards the organization and the job offered (the image of the organization, respondents' attitudes towards working for the organization and towards the position offered), and estimated comprehension of the Dutch and English items. The scales were balanced to avoid response bias, that is, we made sure that the negative and positive qualifications did not always appear on the same side of the scales, in order to counteract the possible tendency of those who filled in the questionnaire to respond in a particular way to the questions or statements, regardless of their content. For each scale we calculated internal consistency in terms of Cronbach's α and determined its qualification using the criteria in Van Wijk (2000, p. 217); for English-language discussions of the notion of Cronbach's alpha and its values, see Field, 2009, pp. 673-681; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006, p. 137). We tested actual comprehension by asking respondents to paraphrase the English and Dutch items. We assessed interrater agreement on the correctness of the paraphrases by calculating Cohen's kappa (κ), defined in terms of the qualifications in Rietveld and Van Hout (1993, p. 221).

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Text evaluation

The scales relating to the intelligibility and attractiveness of the text were based on Maes, Ummelen, and Hoeken (1996, pp. 208-209). Respondents were asked to indicate how easy/difficult, simple/complex, clear/unclear, well organized/poorly organized, logically structured/not logically structured, concise/wordy they considered the text to be (intelligibility; $\alpha = .68$, qualification: moderate) and how interesting/uninteresting, distant/appealing, uninviting/inviting, engaging/boring, personal/impersonal, monotonous/varied (attractiveness; $\alpha = .79$, qualification: adequate). In order to measure the naturalness of the job ad, respondents were asked to indicate how natural/unnatural it was, and to what extent they agreed or disagreed that it was a good example of a job advertisement (naturalness; cf. Hoeken et al., 2003; $\alpha = .69$, qualification moderate).

Attitudes towards the organization and the job offered

The scale used to measure respondents' attitude towards the image of the organization contained the following bipolar adjectives (based on Maes et al., 1996, p. 209): reliable/unreliable, professional/unprofessional, efficient/inefficient, honest/dishonest, innovative/old-fashioned, careful/careless ($\alpha = .75$, qualification: adequate). Respondents' attitudes towards working for the organization were measured by asking them to what extent they thought working for the organization would be nice/not nice, positive/not positive, wise/unwise, uninteresting/interesting, exciting/boring, gratifying/ungratifying (partly based on Hoeken, 1998b, p. 73; $\alpha = .90$, qualification: good). Respondents were also asked whether they thought the position on offer carried a great deal of responsibility/very little responsibility, was monotonous/varied, low-level/high-level, interesting/uninteresting, important/unimportant, nice/not nice ($\alpha = .80$, qualification: adequate). Their interest in working for the organization was measured by asking them to what extent they agreed/disagreed that they would like to know more about the possibilities to work for the bank, that they were going to send an application to the bank after they had graduated, and that they would like to work for the bank (based on Hoeken, 1998b, p. 73; $\alpha = .89$, qualification: good).

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In order to determine respondents' views on the exclusivity of the position, a multiple-choice question was included asking them about the gross monthly salary they would expect to get when they started the job (based on Renkema et al. 2001, p. 258). They could choose between five different amounts of euros: 1000 to 1500, 1500 to 2000, 2000 to 2500, 2500 to 3000, and 3000 or more.

Comprehension

The respondents' understanding of the 11 English words and their Dutch equivalents was measured in two rounds (based on the procedure in Gerritsen et al., 2000). First, the respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which they understood the meaning of the manipulated Dutch and English items as they occurred in their version of the ad (estimated comprehension). The English words and their Dutch equivalents were presented as eight different items, made up of either single words or phrases, printed in bold as part of the sentence in which they were used in the job ad. Next, in a separate task, the respondents were given the same eight items, presented in the same way, and were asked to paraphrase the meaning of these terms, to measure their actual comprehension. The correctness of the paraphrases of the English items was evaluated on the basis of the degree to which they corresponded with the Dutch equivalents selected for the Dutch version. The correctness of the paraphrases of the Dutch items was evaluated on the basis of the degree to which they corresponded to the definitions in the Dutch dictionary Van Dale (1999), where these were available, or to our own paraphrases. A paraphrase could be "completely correct", "completely wrong", but also "partly correct/wrong". If an item consisted of more than one word, we evaluated the correctness of the paraphrase of the item as a whole. If a respondent's paraphrase consisted of a number of alternative paraphrases which included a correct one, the paraphrase was judged to be completely correct. One of the cases in which a paraphrase was considered to be "partly correct/wrong" was when it used the same term that was used in the item that was to be paraphrased, and added little or no additional information. We determined respondents' actual ability to paraphrase the meaning of the items correctly by counting the number of completely correct paraphrases.

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Interrater reliability for the evaluation of the correctness of the paraphrases was determined by having two independent judges (the first and third author of the present article) evaluate the correctness of the paraphrases of each of the eight Dutch items in the completely Dutch job advertisement and of each of the eight English items in the partly English job ad. We found percentages of agreement ranging from 55% to 93%, with a mean of 78%. We found kappas ranging from .37 (qualification: fair) to .68 (substantial), with a mean kappa of .56 (moderate).

7.2.3 Results

One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test whether the three versions of the job advertisement differed with respect to the dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 7.3. As for *text evaluation*, no statistically significant differences were found between the scores of the three versions on attractiveness and intelligibility. However, the respondents in the three groups assessed the naturalness of the ad differently. Post-hoc Bonferroni tests revealed that the completely English version was considered more natural than the other two versions. There were no statistically significant differences between the three versions with regard to the respondents' *attitudes towards the organization and the job offered*.

As far as *comprehension* is concerned, we found a statistically significant effect of version for both estimated and actual comprehension of Dutch or English items. Bonferroni tests indicated that on average the completely Dutch version scored better than the partly English version on the respondents' own evaluation of their comprehension of the eight manipulated Dutch or English items as well as on the number of correct paraphrases of these items (see Table 7.3). When we look at individual items, there were two cases where the Dutch version scored significantly higher than the other two versions on estimated comprehension: *hands-on professional* versus *praktijkgerichte deskundige* (tested with Bonferroni) and *assessment* versus *psychologisch onderzoek* (tested with Games-Howell). In the case of *team player* versus *u functioneert goed binnen een groep*, the estimated comprehension of the item in the completely English version was higher than in the completely Dutch version (tested with Games-Howell). When we look at actual comprehension, there were two Dutch items that had a

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significantly larger number of correct paraphrases than their counterparts in the other two versions: *hands-on professional* versus *praktijkgerichte deskundige* ($\chi^2 (2, n = 90) = 13.20, p < .01$); *assessment* versus *psychologisch onderzoek* ($\chi^2 (2, n = 90) = 17.72, p < .001$). The two English items were more often left unparaphrased than their Dutch counterparts, and examples of paraphrasing errors included *independent* (*zelfstandig*) for *hands-on* and *treatment* (*behandeling*) for *assessment*.

A Kruskal-Wallis test indicated that there was no significant difference between the estimated gross salary for the three versions ($\chi^2 (2) = 1.37, ns$).

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Table 7.3. Results of ANOVAs testing the effect of the use of English on text evaluation, on attitudes towards the organization and the job, and on comprehension in three versions of the job ad

Variable	Version ^a	M	SD	F df = 2, 87	η	Post-hoc differences
<i>Text evaluation:</i>						
Intelligibility	1	4.46	0.71	0.40 ^{ns}	.10	
	2	4.61	0.90			
	3	4.64	0.94			
Attractiveness	1	3.89	0.95	0.88 ^{ns}	.14	
	2	4.12	0.93			
	3	3.83	0.86			
Naturalness of the ad	1	4.37	1.19	8.61***	.41	1 vs. 2
	2	3.08	1.15			1 vs. 3
	3	3.53	1.30			
<i>Attitudes towards the organization and the job:</i>						
Image	1	4.72	0.54	0.22 ^{ns}	.07	
	2	4.78	0.70			
	3	4.85	0.90			
Attitude towards working for the organization ^b	1	4.29	1.22	0.24 ^{ns}	.08	
	2	4.44	1.01			
	3	4.25	1.14			
Attitude towards the position	1	4.76	0.95	1.43 ^{ns}	.18	
	2	4.89	0.74			
	3	5.13	0.88			
Interest in working for the organization	1	3.28	1.64	0.37 ^{ns}	.09	
	2	3.54	1.61			
	3	3.21	1.49			
<i>Comprehension:</i>						
Estimated comprehension	1	5.84	0.80	4.51*	.31	2 vs. 3
	2	5.56	0.84			
	3	6.19	0.79			
Actual comprehension	1	5.03	1.30	5.29**	.33	2 vs. 3
	2	4.67	1.24			
	3	5.67	1.06			

Note. ^aVersion: 1 Completely English; 2 Partly English; 3 Completely Dutch. ^b*df* = 2, 86. *ns* = not significant, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. For all variables, high scores indicate a positive attitude or better comprehension.

7.2.4 Conclusion and discussion

We can conclude that there was no overall effect of the use of English on respondents' attitude towards various aspects of the job advertisement (except for naturalness), the job and the organization, even when the job ad

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was completely in English. This is in line with Renkema et al. (2001), who found no differences in the effect of the use of English as opposed to Dutch terms in partly English and completely Dutch job advertisements on the evaluation of the job ad, the image of the organization and the exclusivity of the position. These findings do not support claims about the prestige and image-enhancing effect of English in advertising in non-English-speaking countries (see Friedrich, 2002; Gerritsen et al., 2000; Griffin, 1997, Haarmann, 1989; Takashi, 1990). Contrary to what is claimed (Larson 1990), the use of English did not make the job advertised sound more appealing and challenging, nor did it affect potential candidates' motivation to apply, either positively or negatively, as Heynderickx and Dieltjens (2002) speculate it might do.

Where Renkema et al. (2001) found that the use of English was considered to make a partly English job ad less natural than a completely Dutch one, we found that the completely English ad scored best on naturalness. We can only speculate why this should be the case. It may be that the cognitive effort that goes into processing a completely English test makes respondents less critical than they are about a text which is completely or largely written in their own language. Alternatively, respondents may have taken a different view of the naturalness of the completely English job ad because they did not expect it to adhere to the conventions that apply to Dutch texts and to Dutch job advertisements in particular. Further research along the lines set out in the present article may profitably be combined with psycholinguistic research into the ways speakers of a language process texts that are partly or completely written in another language.

A second conclusion that can be drawn from our study is that respondents' comprehension of English words and phrases in the partly English job ad was worse than their comprehension of their Dutch equivalents, both in terms of their own estimation of how well they understood the items and in terms of their ability to paraphrase the meaning of the items. This is in line with Gerritsen et al. (2000), who showed that only 36% of respondents were able to paraphrase correctly the meaning of English words and phrases in Dutch TV commercials, and with Gerritsen (1996), who found that only 51% of respondents were capable of correctly

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translating completely English job ads for products in Dutch magazines and newspapers.

In contrast to these earlier findings, and contrary to what may be expected, however, there were no statistically significant overall differences in estimated and actual comprehension of the manipulated items between the completely English and the completely Dutch job ad, although the Dutch ad scored better on two individual items. We have no explanation for the fact that the overall differences in comprehension we found were only significant for the partly English and completely Dutch version, and not for the completely English and completely Dutch version. As for estimated comprehension, we can only speculate that the specific English items questioned did not stand out in the fully English context of the completely English job advertisement, whereas they did stand out in the Dutch context of the partly English advertisement, and that it was this difference that made the English items in the completely English ad seem easier.

The findings of the present study apply to highly educated young respondents and may not be generalized to older and less highly educated populations. Renkema et al. (2001) found no differences between younger (18- to 22-year-old) and older (45 or older) respondents, but Gerritsen (1996) found that respondents over 45 were more negative about completely English advertisements than were respondents under 25, and that the older respondents made more mistakes in translating English into Dutch. Gerritsen et al. (2000) found that younger (15- to 18-year-old) respondents and respondents with a higher level of education had a more positive attitude towards English in Dutch TV commercials and were better at paraphrasing English than older (50- to 57-year-old) respondents and respondents with a lower level of education. We deliberately chose to use only young and highly educated respondents, since they, and not older and less highly educated respondents, were the likely target group for the job advertisement in our experiment.

Our study has a number of limitations. One limitation relates to the way we tested actual comprehension (based on Gerritsen et al., 2000). The question is whether a paraphrase task is a very precise way of testing whether respondents have understood a particular word or phrase. It may well be that they know what it means, but cannot put this into different words. When respondents' paraphrases cover only one aspect or some

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aspects of the original item, they may still fully understand its meaning. In our case, the difficulty of the task may have been compounded by the fact that some items did not consist of one word, but of combinations of words. In future research, additional methods may be used to measure comprehension, such as Cloze tests and recording reading time (Hans Hoeken and Wilbert Spooren, personal communication).

Another limitation of the present study is that, unlike Renkema et al. (2001), we only tested the effects of the use of English in versions of one advertisement. In this one advertisement, the attitudes of the respondents towards the position offered and the organization may have outweighed the effects of the use of English instead of Dutch.

Further research should test the effect of the use of English in job ads aimed at potential applicants belonging to various age groups and with different educational backgrounds, with more than one job ad per target group. It would also be interesting to test the effects of the use of English on potential applicants from other countries where English is not spoken as a first language. If we limit ourselves to the European Union, research on the status of English in general offers a basis for hypothesizing that respondents in the Netherlands have a more positive attitude towards English and that they understand English better than is the case in other countries where English is not the primary language. Eurobarometer data from 2001 indicate that 75% of the Dutch population claims to be able to speak English well enough to take part in a conversation, compared to an average of 32% of the population in EU countries where English is not the mother tongue (European Commission, 2001, pp. 83-84). Cross-cultural research of the kind proposed here has obvious relevance for the decisions of organizations in different non-English-speaking countries regarding their use of English when trying to recruit new personnel.

Acknowledgements

We wish to thank Caroline Davis, Marinel Gerritsen, Leen d'Haenens, Hans Hoeken, Frank Jansen, Daniël Janssen, Catherine Nickerson, Brigitte Planken, Hans Slomp, and the three personnel officers who pre-tested the job ads, for their help with this paper.

Appendix 7.1: The three versions of the job advertisement used in the experiment

Version 1: The Completely English Version

Van Breederode isn't a bank like other banks. We believe that banking isn't only about finance, but also about style and personal contact. Van Breederode is a trusted name and has an excellent reputation when it comes to client-oriented banking. Offering high-quality service focusing on advice and personal attention is our core business.

In order to guarantee this high level of quality, we pay particular attention to the wishes of our customers. Our Communication department has a special role in this. For this department we are seeking a

Management trainee with an eye for service

Content

The communication department consists of five communication staff members and looks after both external and internal communication.

At Van Breederode we want to know at all times what matters to our clients. Not only in the area of finance, but also in the area of general service.

Advising Management about these areas is one of the main tasks of the communication department. In addition, the department is responsible for developing external communication means, promoting our organisation, and organising events such as information evenings for our clients. Furthermore, the department ensures that the internal communication flows are streamlined.

As a management trainee you will become familiar with all aspects of our communication.

Requirements

- You are expected to have a relevant academic degree, for instance in Communication or Management Sciences.
- Some experience in the field is an advantage.
- After a period of two to three years as a management trainee, you will be expected to be able to run the communication department independently as a hands-on professional and to be able to motivate your staff.
- You are a team player and you have excellent communicative skills.

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Procedure

If you are interested in this position, please telephone Ms. J. Hermans, tel. 024-452978, for an information package.

Application letters should be sent within two weeks after publication of this advertisement to Van Breederode Bankiers, P.O. Box 335, 6500 HC Nijmegen, att. Mr. P. Jacobs. Ref. 5578.

An assessment may be part of the application procedure.

We are an equal opportunities employer.

Version 2: The Partly English Version

Van Breederode is geen bank als andere banken. Bankieren heeft in onze optiek niet alleen te maken met finance maar ook met stijl en persoonlijk contact. Van Breederode is een vertrouwde naam en onze bank heeft een uitstekende reputatie als het gaat om cliëntgericht bankieren. Kwalitatief hoogwaardige serviceverlening waarin advisering en persoonlijke aandacht centraal staan, is de core business van onze organisatie.

Om dit kwalitatief hoge niveau te kunnen waarborgen, hebben wij bijzondere aandacht voor de wensen van onze klanten. Hierbij is een speciale taak weggelegd voor onze Communicatieafdeling. Voor deze afdeling zijn wij op zoek naar een:

Management trainee m/v met oog voor serviceverlening

Functie-inhoud

De communicatie-afdeling bestaat uit vijf communicatiemedewerkers en draagt zorg voor zowel de externe als de interne communicatie.

We willen bij Van Breederode te allen tijde weten wat er bij onze cliënten speelt. Niet alleen op financieel gebied, maar ook op het gebied van de algemene serviceverlening.

Het adviseren van het Management over deze gebieden is één van de hoofdtaken van de communicatie-afdeling. Daarnaast is de afdeling verantwoordelijk voor de ontwikkeling van externe communicatiemiddelen, de promotie van onze organisatie en het organiseren van evenementen zoals informatieavonden voor onze cliënten. Verder zorgt de afdeling voor het stroomlijnen van de interne communicatiestromen

Als management trainee raakt u vertrouwd met alle aspecten van onze communicatie.

Functie-eisen

- U wordt geacht een relevante academische opleiding te hebben genoten, bijvoorbeeld Communicatie- of Managementwetenschappen.
- Enige ervaring binnen het vakgebied is een pre.
- Na een periode van twee à drie jaar als management trainee wordt u geacht zelfstandig als een hands-on professional de communicatie-afdeling te kunnen aansturen en uw medewerkers te kunnen motiveren.
- U bent een team player en u beschikt over uitstekende communicatieve vaardigheden.

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Procedure

Indien u geïnteresseerd bent in deze functie, kunt u telefonisch een informatiepakket opvragen bij Mevrouw J. Hermans, tel. 024-4529788.

Sollicitatiebrieven dienen binnen twee weken na het verschijnen van deze advertentie gestuurd worden naar Van Breederode Bankiers, Postbus 335, 6500 HC Nijmegen, t.n.v. de Heer P. Jacobs. Ref. 5578.

Een assessment kan onderdeel uitmaken van de sollicitatieprocedure.

Version 3: The Completely Dutch Version

Van Breederode is geen bank als andere banken. Bankieren heeft in onze optiek niet alleen te maken met financiën maar ook met stijl en persoonlijk contact. Van Breederode is een vertrouwde naam en onze bank heeft een uitstekende reputatie als het gaat om cliëntgericht bankieren. Kwalitatief hoogwaardige dienstverlening waarin advisering en persoonlijke aandacht centraal staan, is de kernactiviteit van onze organisatie.

Om dit kwalitatief hoge niveau te kunnen waarborgen, hebben wij bijzondere aandacht voor de wensen van onze klanten. Hierbij is een speciale taak weggelegd voor onze Communicatieafdeling. Voor deze afdeling zijn wij op zoek naar een:

Leidinggevende in opleiding m/v met oog voor dienstverlening

Functie-inhoud

De Communicatieafdeling bestaat uit vijf communicatiemedewerkers en draagt zorg voor zowel de externe als de interne communicatie.

We willen bij Van Breederode te allen tijde weten wat er bij onze cliënten speelt. Niet alleen op financieel gebied, maar ook op het gebied van de algemene dienstverlening.

Het adviseren van de directie over deze gebieden is één van de hoofdtaken van de Communicatieafdeling. Daarnaast is de afdeling verantwoordelijk voor de ontwikkeling van externe communicatiemiddelen, de promotie van onze organisatie en het organiseren van evenementen zoals informatieavonden voor onze cliënten. Verder zorgt de afdeling voor het stroomlijnen van de interne communicatiestromen.

Als leidinggevende in opleiding raakt u vertrouwd met alle aspecten van onze communicatie.

Functie-eisen

- U wordt geacht een relevante academische opleiding te hebben genoten, bijvoorbeeld Communicatie- of Managementwetenschappen.
- Enige ervaring binnen het vakgebied is een pre.
- Na een periode van twee à drie jaar als leidinggevende in opleiding wordt u geacht zelfstandig als een praktijkgerichte deskundige de communicatieafdeling te kunnen aansturen en uw medewerkers te kunnen motiveren.
- U functioneert goed binnen een groep en u beschikt over uitstekende communicatieve vaardigheden.

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Procedure

Indien u geïnteresseerd bent in deze functie, kunt u telefonisch een informatiepakket opvragen bij Mevrouw J. Hermans, tel. 024-4529788.

Sollicitatiebrieven dienen binnen twee weken na het verschijnen van deze advertentie gestuurd worden naar Van Breederode Bankiers, Postbus 335, 6500 HC Nijmegen, t.n.v. de Heer P. Jacobs. Ref. 5578.

Een psychologisch onderzoek kan onderdeel uitmaken van de sollicitatieprocedure.

7.3 Testing the effect of a genre's form on its target group: Potential applicants' responses to the use of English in job advertisements from the Dutch job site Monsterboard.nl²⁰

Frank van Meurs/Hubert Korzilius/Adriënne den Hollander

7.3.1 Introduction

Genre analysis and the consumption of a genre text by its target audience

The two main aims of applied genre analysis have been formulated as characterizing the “typical or conventional textual features of any genre-specific text” and as explaining “such a characterization in the context of the sociocultural as well as cognitive constraints operating in the relevant area of specialization” (Bhatia, 1993, p. 16). In line with these aims, studies characterizing genres and explaining genre characteristics generally analyse the communicative purpose, situation and context associated with a text genre (including the discourse community that produces a text, and the genre's audience), as well as the content, structure and form (e.g. style, linguistic features) through which the text genre is realised (Bhatia, 1993, pp. 23-29; Miller, 1984: 159; Nickerson, 2000, pp. 35-51; Swales, 1990, p. 58; Yates & Orlikowski, 1992, pp. 300-302).²¹

²⁰ This study was published as Van Meurs, Korzilius, and Den Hollander (2006b), which is reprinted here with slight modifications. New publications details have been added for publications which were listed as “submitted” or “in press” in the original article. For references to articles that are included in this dissertation, cross references to the chapters and sections concerned have been added between square brackets. The references from the bibliography of the original article have been included in the list of references for the whole of this dissertation, which can be found on pp. 409-431.

²¹ Some authors treat structure (either move structure or physically marked text structure) as an aspect of form (Bhatia, 1993, pp. 24-33; Nickerson, 2000, p. 50; Yates & Orlikowski, 1992, pp. 301-302), while others treat structure (i.e. move structure) as an aspect separate from form (e.g. Swales, 1993, pp. 52, 58).

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Van Nus (1999b) has proposed a three-component model for analysing the corporate context of business genres, in which she incorporates the aspects of genre analysis mentioned above. Most of these aspects are classified under the following two components: "Corporate situation" (discourse community, audience, situation; communicative purpose may also be included here; see Nickerson 2000, p. 90) and "Genre text" (discourse structure, content, form). Following Fairclough (1992), the third component of Van Nus's model, labelled "Genre", covers discourse practices, which mediate between social practices (the "Corporate situation" component) and the actual texts (the "Genre text" component). Van Nus distinguishes three kinds of discourse practices: production, distribution and consumption practices. Production practices include text production activities and textual decisions on the part of the text producers. Distribution practices for instance involve choice of medium. Consumption practices include text processing activities on the part of the receivers of the texts and their "extra-textual decisions [...] determined by textual choices made by speakers/writers" (Van Nus 1999b, p. 187).

Van Nus (1999a) points out that the process of consumption of business texts has received far less attention than other aspects. She also stresses that the question of "which components of textual variation influence the effectiveness of texts for different target groups" is an important issue for researchers and text producers alike (Van Nus 1999a, p. 202). Accordingly, in the present paper, we extend the traditional analysis of the features that characterize a particular genre, by looking at the consumption of such features. We are interested in investigating in what way genre features actually contribute to achieving the communicative purpose of the genre in terms of what it wants the target audience to do.

The current paper specifically investigates the effect of one particular aspect of a genre's form, the use of English or Dutch, in one particular genre, job advertisements from a Dutch job site, on one particular target group of these job ads, potential applicants. As background to this study, we will first discuss the genre status of job advertisements and the extent to which English is used in job advertisements in non-English-speaking countries, such as the Netherlands, along with possible reasons for this use.

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Job advertisements as a genre

A job advertisement can be defined as message in a newspaper, in a trade journal, on an organization's website or on a job site announcing a vacancy in an organization, which calls on suitable applicants to apply for the position (based on Jansen, Steehouder, & Gijzen, 2004, p. 424). In considering the genre status of job advertisements, we will discuss the aspects characterizing genre mentioned above: their communicative purpose, their content, structure and form, and the situation/context that gives rise to them. In doing so, we follow the definition of genre given by Yates and Orlikowski (1992, p. 319), "[g]enres are typified communicative actions invoked in recurrent situations and characterized by similar substance and form."

To begin with situation, job ads are written in response to an organization's need to hire a new employee or new employees. The discourse community that produces the genre are the writers of the job advertisement. The main target audience are job seekers who are capable of filling the vacancy (for other audiences, see Rafaeli & Oliver, 1998, p. 346). The main communicative purpose of a job advertisement is to persuade suitable candidates to apply for the vacancy (e.g. Hilgendorf & Martin, 2001, p. 218; Jansen et al., 2004, p. 424).

As for the content and structure of job advertisements, several authors have listed the textual units generally found in job ads. Textual units that are frequently mentioned are company information, job description, job requirements, the offer (benefits and salary) and the application procedure (including contact information) (e.g. De Witte & Vermeylen, 1986, p. 46; Korswagen, 1985, pp. 24-36; Timmerman, 1992, pp. 130-136; Van Dalen, 2003, pp. 114 - 122). Textual units that are set apart typographically from the rest of the text are job title, headline, and end line (Timmerman, 1992, p. 86; Van Dalen, 2003, p. 114). As far as the form of job advertisements is concerned, the layout features of job advertisements that have received attention in the literature include an organization's logo and an illustration (e.g. De Witte & Vermeylen, 1986, pp. 95-97; Timmerman, 1992, pp. 106, 108; Van Dalen, 2003, p. 114).

In this paper, we do not focus on job advertisements from newspapers or magazines, but from a different, electronic medium, the

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Dutch job site Monsterboard.nl. Our own analysis of a random selection of 120 job advertisements on Monsterboard.nl on 17 February 2004 revealed that their textual and layout features were different in a number of respects from the features listed so far. A headline was only very rarely used, and illustrations and end lines were not used at all. Job ads from Monsterboard.nl also had four specially marked textual units that are not marked as such in job ads from newspapers or magazines:

- a location printed in bold on a separate line at the top of the ad;
- a textual unit headed “Additional Information”, containing information about the type of job (e.g. whether it is “permanent” and “full time”);
- a textual unit headed “Contact Information”, containing contact details for candidates interested in pursuing the job opportunity;
- a section with hyperlinks at the bottom of the ad, i.e., a link to other job ads from the same organization, a link which makes it possible to send the ad to someone else, and a link through which an interested candidate can send an application direct to the organization.

The use of English in job advertisements in non-English-speaking countries and reasons for this use

Our analysis of job advertisements on Monsterboard.nl showed that English was an important but not a compulsory form feature. Of the 120 ads studied, 5% were completely in English and 87.6% contained at least one English word.²² This widespread use of English is in line with findings for job ads in

²² For this count, a word was considered English if it was found in an English monolingual dictionary or an English UK website, and if it was not included in the authoritative dictionary of the Dutch language, Van Dale (1999), and not adapted to the Dutch language system in spelling, inflection or conjugation. For instance, the word “manager”, even though it is of English origin, was not regarded as English, because it was in Van Dale. If a word occurred in a completely English phrase (i.e., if all the words in the phrase were found in an English monolingual dictionary or on an English UK website, and if the phrase adhered to the rules of English grammar), it was considered English, even if it was included in Van Dale. For instance, in the phrase “Please send your CV to ...”, ‘CV’ was considered English, even though the

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a national paper from the Netherlands (although it was more extensive on *Monsterboard*; see Korzilius, Van Meurs, & Hermans, 2006 [Chapter 6.2 above]) and also in papers from other non-English-speaking countries, Germany (Hilgendorf & Martin, 2001) and Sweden (Larson, 1990). The use of English words and phrases instead of Dutch in largely Dutch job ads can be seen as a matter of lexis or vocabulary (cf. Bhatia, 1993, p. 26; Yates & Orlikowski, 1992, p. 302) and the choice between English or Dutch in completely English or Dutch job ads as a matter of code (see Nickerson, 2000, pp. 45-46).

With respect to linguistic features in genre texts, Bhatia (1993, p. 150) indicates that students of genre should ask themselves why the “specialist writers of these genres use [them] the way they do”. An obvious reason for the use of completely English advertisements on a Dutch job site is that the organization does not want to persuade only native Dutch job seekers to apply, but also potentially suitable candidates who cannot not read Dutch but who can read English. However, this reason does not explain the use of English words and phrases alongside Dutch, which was the situation in the majority of the job advertisements in our sample. The rationale for this use in terms of its possible effects may be found in the literature on English in commercial advertising in non-English-speaking countries. The literature explaining the use of English for commercial advertising is more extensive than for job ads, and more frequently empirically based (i.e., based on interviews with advertising agencies). The application of insights about commercial advertising to job advertising appears justified in that both have been described as promotional genres (Bhatia, 1993, pp. 74-75; Hilgendorf & Martin, 2001, p. 218). Where observations about English in commercial advertising are supported by the more incidental observations that are specifically relevant to job ads, this will be pointed out.

One of the reasons that is frequently given for the use of English in advertising for products and services in non-English-speaking counties is

word ‘CV’ was in Van Dale. If we counted all the words of English origin as English, irrespective of whether they were in Van Dale, all not-completely English ads from our sample contained at least one English word. For a more detailed discussion of what constitutes an English word, see Korzilius, Van Meurs, and Hermans (2006) [Chapter 6.2 above] and Van Meurs, Korzilius, and Den Hollander (2006d) [Chapter 6.3 above].

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that it is claimed to increase prestige (e.g. Griffin, 1997, p. 38; Haarmann, 1989, p. 234). The use of English is said to enhance the image of the product or service advertised (Takashi, 1990, p. 329), a view which is confirmed by interviews with Dutch advertising agencies (Gerritsen, et al., 2000, p. 20). Larson (1990, pp. 367-368) mentions a similar reason for the use of English in job advertisements in countries where English is not the first language. He says that companies prefer to use English terms in Swedish job ads because of the image they want to project, and that an English job title instead of a Swedish one may make a job sound more attractive and challenging. English job titles are said to give a job more status than do Dutch job titles, not just in job ads but generally (De Koning, 1989, p. 218; Peereboom, 1991, p. 7).

Another reason for the use of English in commercial advertising in non-English-speaking countries is that it is claimed to make an advertising text more attractive (De Raaij, 1997, p. 143). This view is supported by interviews with marketing directors in Thailand, who point out that English words are used in brand names instead of Thai words because, unlike English words, Thai words "sound corny or awkward" and are not "cute" (Masavisut, Sukwiwat, & Wongmontha, 1986, p. 203).

A reason against the use of English in advertising might be that it prevents non-native speakers from fully understanding the message and thus from doing what the producers of the message want them to do. However, De Mooij (1994, p. 288) states that this should not be a problem for at least a number of target groups in Europe: "In general, the better-educated throughout Europe, as well as the youth, can be reached with English". The Dutch advertising agencies interviewed in Gerritsen et al. (2000, p. 20) even believe that everyone in the Netherlands understands English.

Earlier experimental studies of the effect of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands

The effect of the use of English in printed job advertisements in the Netherlands has been tested in two experiments. Renkema, Vallen and Hoeken (2001) asked respondents to evaluate either two job advertisements that contained English words or the same two job ads in which the English words were replaced by Dutch equivalents. In Van Meurs, Korzilius and

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Hermans (2004) [Section 7.2 above], each respondent was asked to evaluate one of three job advertisements, which only differed in the amount of English they contained: a completely English version, a partly English version, and a completely Dutch version. Both studies indicate that using English instead of Dutch did not produce as favourable an effect as the literature on English in advertising in non-English-speaking countries would suggest. In both experiments, the use of English did not significantly affect respondents' attitudes to the position advertised and the image of the organization that offered the position, nor their evaluation of the text of the job advertisement in terms of attractiveness and difficulty. In addition, Van Meurs et al.'s experiment showed that respondents judged the individual English terms in a job ad containing a mix of English and Dutch to be more difficult than the Dutch equivalents in a completely Dutch job ad, and also made more mistakes in paraphrasing the meaning of these English terms.

An experimental study of the effect of the use of English in job advertisements on the Dutch job site Monsterboard.nl: research questions

In view of the frequency with which English is used in job advertisements on the Dutch job site Monsterboard.nl and in view of the fact that approximately 77 per cent of highly educated job searchers in the Netherlands consult online job advertisements on job sites (NOA, 2004, p. 13), it seemed important to us to extend the study of the effect of English on potential applicants from printed job ads to job ads on Dutch job sites. We chose to study advertisements from Monsterboard.nl in particular, because Monsterboard.nl is the job site used most frequently by highly educated job seekers (NOA, 2004, p. 16) and the best known job site among Dutch consumers (known to 66% of those questioned; NIPO, 2003).

Our research questions were the same as those in earlier research on printed job advertisements (Van Meurs et al., 2004) [see Section 7.2.1], all of which relate to the claims in the literature that the use of English is prestige enhancing, leads to a better text evaluation, and is not detrimental for the comprehension of the text. In the current study we aimed to determine the effect of the use of English instead of Dutch in the genre of job ads as found on Monsterboard.nl on respondents'

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- attitudes towards the organization and the job offered (image of the organization, attitudes towards working for the organization and towards the position offered, evaluation of the exclusivity of the position, and interest in working for the organization);
- evaluation of the text (intelligibility, attractiveness, and naturalness);
- comprehension of the English and Dutch terms used (estimated comprehension and actual comprehension).

7.3.2 Method

Design and respondents

Our experiment had a between-subject design. Three versions of the same fictitious job advertisement modelled on job ads placed on Monsterboard.nl were presented to potential applicants (30 per version): one completely English version, one partly English version, and one completely Dutch version. The number of respondents was based on a statistical power of .93, a large effect size and an alpha of .05 (cf. Cohen, 1992). The respondents were students of higher education in economics and management at tertiary level (HEAO) at the Hogeschool Zeeland (Zeeland Polytechnic) at Flushing, the Netherlands. There were 59 male and 31 female respondents. Men and women were not equally distributed across versions ($\chi^2(2) = 7.78, p < .05$). The mean age was 20 ($SD = 1.83$; min = 17; max. = 26).

Materials

The layout, headings, length, structure and content of the three advertisements used in the experiment were based on actual online job advertisements placed on Monsterboard.nl. The completely English version, the partly English version, and the completely Dutch version of the ad contained 344, 339 and 338 words, respectively, compared to an average of 325 words for the ads on Monsterboard.nl. The position offered was that of a sales assistant in a company that imports and exports fruit, who was to assist the sales managers. This particular position was chosen because it was thought to be a job for which the respondents, students of higher education

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in economics and management, might be expected to apply after they had graduated. A degree in higher education in economics and management (a 'HEAO degree') was one of the job requirements mentioned in the job ad.

The three versions of the job ad used in the experiments were identical except for the amount of English they contained. The partly English advertisement contained 46 English words (ten different English phrases) in various parts of the ad. Most of these English words and phrases were chosen because they were the most frequent English words in the relevant textual unit in our corpus of job ads from Monsterboard.nl (location, job title, company information, job description, job requirements, offer, application procedure, additional information, contact information, hyperlinks). The English words we used in the company name and the logo were not the most frequent English words in these particular parts of the job ads from our corpus, but our corpus analysis did show that names of the organization and logos frequently contained English (in 41.6% and 45.1% of the cases, respectively).

The English words in the partly English version of the job ad were a mixture of lexical items of English origin included in the authoritative dictionary of the Dutch language, Van Dale (1999) – *managers* (in *sales managers*), *knowhow*, *service*, *team* (in *teamplayer*), *must* – and English words that were not included in that dictionary – *The Fruit Word*, *Healty & Tasty*, *sales* (in *sales assistant* and *sales managers*, although *salesmanagers* is in Van Dale), *assistant* (in *sales assistant*), *player* (in *teamplayer*), *Human Resources*, *full time* (although *fulltime* is in Van Dale). This mixture was used because the partly English job ads in our Monsterboard.nl corpus also contained lexical items of English origin that were included in Van Dale as well as English words that were not included in this dictionary.

The completely Dutch job advertisement contained Dutch equivalents of the English words and phrases in the partly English job ad. These Dutch equivalents were found in the corpus of job ads on Monsterboard.nl that we analysed, in the English-Dutch Van Dale dictionary (1997), and on the Internet, using the search engine Google.

The completely English version of the job advertisement was a direct translation of the Dutch text used in the other two versions. All the English words and phrases used in the partly English job ad were used here as well. The quality of the English text was checked by a native speaker of

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English. The equivalence of the completely English text and the text of the other two ads was checked by having the completely English job ad translated back into Dutch by a university teacher of English, whose native language was Dutch. There was a very high degree of agreement between the back translation and the original partly English and completely Dutch versions.

The authenticity of the partly English and completely Dutch job advertisements was checked by personnel officers working for two different Dutch organizations, and the authenticity of the completely English job ad was checked by personnel officers working at one of the Dutch offices of a multinational organization. The comments these experts made were used in making the final versions of the job ads that were presented to the respondents.

Table 7.4 shows the English terms and their Dutch equivalents that were used in the three versions of the job ad.

Table 7.4. English terms and Dutch equivalents used in the three versions of the job advertisement

No.	Completely English version	Partly English/Dutch version	Completely Dutch version
1	The Fruit World	The Fruit World	De Fruit Wereld
2	Healthy & Tasty	Healthy & Tasty	Gezond & Lekker
3	Sales assistant	Sales assistant	Verkoopmedewerker
4	Sales managers	Sales managers	Verkoopleiders
5	Know-how	Knowhow	Kennis
6	Service	Service	Dienstverlening
7	Team player	Teamplayer	Functioneer je goed in een groep
8	Must	Must	Noodzaak
9	Human Resources	Human Resources	Personeelszaken
10	Full time	Full time	Voltijd

The three versions of the job advertisement can be found in Appendix 7.2.

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Instrumentation

Each of the respondents was asked to fill in a written questionnaire about one of the three versions of the job advertisement. All the questions in the questionnaire were identical to the questions used in an earlier study of the effect of the use of English in printed job ads (Van Meurs et al., 2004) [Section 7.2 above], the majority of which were based on Gerritsen et al. (2000), Hoeken (1998b), Hoeken et al. (2003), Maes, Ummelen and Hoeken (1996, pp. 208-209), and Renkema et al. (2001).

Seven-point semantic differential scales and Likert scales were used to test the effect of the use of English or Dutch on the respondents' attitudes towards the organization and the job, text evaluation, and estimated comprehension of the Dutch and English items. The scales were balanced; in other words, the positive and negative adjectives did not always appear on the same side of the scale, to avoid response bias. Where appropriate, the scores on the items were recoded, so that 1 was the most negative score and 7 was the most positive score. For each scale we calculated internal consistency in terms of Cronbach's α and determined its qualification using the criteria in Van Wijk (2000, p. 217); for English-language discussions of the notion of Cronbach's alpha and its values, see Field, 2009, pp. 673-681; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006, p. 137). We tested actual comprehension by asking respondents to paraphrase the English and Dutch items. We assessed interrater agreement on the correctness of the paraphrases by calculating Cohen's kappa (κ), defined in terms of the qualifications in Rietveld and Van Hout (1993, p. 221).

Attitudes towards the organization and the job offered

The image of the company was determined by presenting the respondents with the statement "I think the company in the online job advertisement, The Fruit World [or De Fruit Wereld], is", followed by six pairs of adjectives: reliable/unreliable, professional/unprofessional, efficient/inefficient, honest/dishonest, innovative/old-fashioned, careful/careless ($\alpha = .72$, qualification: adequate).

The respondents' attitudes towards working for the company were measured with six bipolar adjectives, preceded by the statement "Working

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for The Fruit World seems to me”: nice/not nice, positive/not positive, wise/unwise, uninteresting/interesting, exciting/boring, gratifying/ungratifying; $\alpha = .88$, qualification: good).

How the respondents viewed the position on offer was determined with the statement “The position, sales assistant, seems to me”, followed by six items: involving a great deal of responsibility/very little responsibility, monotonous/varied, low-level/high-level, interesting/uninteresting, important/unimportant, nice/not nice ($\alpha = .83$, qualification: good).

Three statements were used to measure the respondents’ interest in working for the company: “I would like to know more about the possibilities to work for The Fruit World”, “After I’ve graduated, I intend to send a letter of application to The Fruit World”, and “I would like to work for The Fruit World”, each followed by a seven-point Likert scale (1 = completely disagree; 7 = I completely agree) ($\alpha = .90$, qualification: good).

In order to determine respondents' views on the exclusivity of the position, a multiple-choice question was included asking them about the gross monthly salary they would expect to get when they started the job. They could choose between five different salary levels (in euros): 1000 to 1500, 1500 to 2000, 2000 to 2500, 2500 to 3000, and 3000 or more.

Text evaluation

The intelligibility and attractiveness of the text was measured by using two semantic differential scales, each preceded by the statement “I think the text of the online job advertisement is”. Each scale consisted of six pairs of adjectives. The adjectives relating to intelligibility were: easy/difficult, simple/complex, clear/unclear, well organized/poorly organized, logically structured/not logically structured, concise/wordy ($\alpha = .74$, qualification: adequate). The scale relating to attractiveness was made up of the following bipolar adjectives: interesting/uninteresting, distant/appealing, uninviting/inviting, engaging/boring, personal/impersonal, monotonous/varied ($\alpha = .83$, qualification: good).

The respondents’ evaluation of the naturalness of the text was determined with two statements. The first statement was “I think this online job advertisement is”, followed by one seven-point semantic differential: natural/unnatural. The second statement was “I think this online

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advertisement is a good example of a job advertisement", followed by a seven-point Likert scale (completely disagree / completely agree). The internal consistency of these two items was insufficient ($\alpha = .23$).

Comprehension

Estimated comprehension of ten English terms or their Dutch counterparts (see Table 7.4) was determined by asking the respondents to indicate on a seven-point scale how well they understood these terms (1 = not at all; 7 = fully). The English terms and their Dutch equivalents were presented as ten different items, made up of either single words or phrases, printed in bold as part of the sentence in which they were used in the job ad. Cronbach's α for the estimated comprehension of the ten items was .80 or higher for each of the three versions of the advertisement (qualification: adequate or good).

The *actual comprehension* of the English terms and their Dutch counterparts was tested by asking the respondents to describe the meaning of these terms, which were again presented as ten separate items, printed in bold in the sentences from the job advertisement. A paraphrase could be "completely correct", "completely wrong", but also "partly correct/wrong". If an item consisted of more than one word, we evaluated the correctness of the paraphrase of the item as a whole. If a respondent's paraphrase consisted of a number of alternative paraphrases which included a correct one, the paraphrase was judged to be completely correct. One of the cases in which a paraphrase was considered to be "partly correct/wrong" was when it used the same term that was used in the item that was to be paraphrased, and added little or no additional information. Not only were correct translations considered correct, but so were correct indications of the purpose of a particular phrase. Thus, in the case of the item "The Fruit World" both a literal Dutch translation of the phrase and the explanation that this was the name of the company were judged to be completely correct.

We determined respondents' overall ability to paraphrase the meaning of the items correctly by counting the number of completely correct paraphrases. When counting the number of correct paraphrases, we left the item "Human Resources" / "Personeelszaken" out of consideration, because it turned out that the majority of the respondents who had seen the Dutch version had used the word "personeel" (personnel) in their paraphrases of

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the compound “Personeelszaken” (literally “Personnel Matters”), meaning that these paraphrases were at best to be considered “partly correct/wrong”, whereas the English equivalent did not contain a component that respondents could use in their paraphrases. Since each completely correct paraphrase earned one point, the minimum score for the nine remaining items on actual comprehension was theoretically zero, and the maximum score was nine.

Inter-rater reliability for the evaluation of the correctness of the paraphrases was determined by having two independent judges (the first and third author of the present article) evaluate the correctness of all the paraphrases. We found percentages of agreement ranging from 62% to 85%, with a mean of 73% ($SD = 0.08$). We found kappas ranging from .20 (qualification: slight) to .73 (qualification: substantial), with a mean kappa of .41 (qualification: moderate). After the two judges had independently evaluated the correctness of the paraphrases, they consulted and reached agreement on the correctness of the items where their original evaluations had differed. These new consensual evaluations were used in the final analysis of the respondents’ actual comprehension of the manipulated English and Dutch items.

Procedure

Each respondent was given a booklet which started with information about the study and instructions, followed by the job advertisement, and the questionnaire.

At the beginning of the booklet the study was described as a study for an MA thesis about online job advertisements. The specific aim of the study, determining the effect of the use of Dutch or English in these ads, was not mentioned. In the instructions the respondents were told that they would see a design of an online job advertisement which they might come across on a job site. They were asked to read it carefully before answering the questions, and were told that they could go back to the job advertisement when answering the questions. The respondents filled in the questionnaires individually in the presence of one of the researchers.

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Statistical analysis

For every scale where Cronbach's α was at least adequate (.70 or higher), we calculated the composite means of the items. This was the case for all scales, except for the statements relating to naturalness. For actual comprehension, we calculated the sum score of the number of items that were correctly paraphrased. Since all these scales were interval scales, One-Way Analysis of Variance was used to test whether the three versions of the job advertisement differed with respect to the dependent variables. When the differences proved to be significant, the post-hoc Games-Howell procedure was used to determine which versions differed from each other, because the variances were unequal (tested with Levene's test for equality of variances).

The significance of the differences between the three job ads in the scores on the multiple-choice question about estimated salary, an ordinal variable, was tested with the Kruskal-Wallis test.

7.3.3 Results

The results of the ANOVAs for respondents' attitudes towards the organization and the position, for text evaluation, and for comprehension of English terms and their Dutch equivalents in the three versions of the job advertisement are summarized in Table 7.5.

Table 7.5 shows that there were no statistically significant differences between the three versions of the job ad with respect to the respondents' *attitudes towards the company and the position on offer*. These results were confirmed by respondents' evaluation of the exclusivity of the position in terms of estimated gross salary, where a Kruskal-Wallis test did not show any significant differences between the three job ads either ($\chi^2(2) = 1.08, ns$). There were also no significant differences in the scores of the three versions on *text evaluation*.

As far as *comprehension* is concerned, it becomes clear from Table 7.5 that respondents' own estimation of their comprehension of the English terms in the completely English advertisement was higher than the estimated comprehension of the Dutch counterparts of these terms in the completely Dutch version. As for actual comprehension, however, there were no statistically significant differences between the three versions of the

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job ad in the mean number of completely correct paraphrases of the nine manipulated terms that we investigated.

Table 7.5. The effect of the use of English in job ads from Monsterboard.nl

Variable	Version ^a	M	SD	F df = 2, 87	η^2	Post-hoc differences
<i>Attitudes towards the organization and the job:</i>						
Image of the organization	1	4.92	0.70	0.42 ^{ns}	.01	
	2	4.89	0.62			
	3	4.77	0.67			
Attitude towards working for the organization	1	4.21	1.18	0.63 ^{ns}	.01	
	2	4.51	0.98			
	3	4.43	1.01			
Attitude towards the position	1	4.75	0.84	1.63 ^{ns}	.04	
	2	4.93	0.91			
	3	4.49	1.04			
Interest in working for the organization	1	3.00	1.21	0.46 ^{ns}	.01	
	2	2.94	1.32			
	3	3.28	1.75			
<i>Text Evaluation:</i>						
Intelligibility	1	5.29	0.98	0.70 ^{ns}	.02	
	2	5.23	0.84			
	3	5.03	0.87			
Attractiveness	1	4.42	0.89	2.12 ^{ns}	.05	
	2	4.65	0.96			
	3	4.13	1.10			
Naturalness of the advertisement	1	5.20	1.24	0.14 ^{ns}	.00	
	2	5.13	1.22			
	3	5.03	1.25			
Extent to which ad is example of a job ad	1	4.87	1.57	0.50 ^{ns}	.01	
	2	4.77	1.38			
	3	4.47	1.87			
<i>Comprehension:</i>						
Estimated comprehension	1	6.51	0.56	8.69***	.17	1 vs. 3
	2	6.22	0.72			
	3	5.66	1.05			
Actual comprehension	1	6.10	1.32	1.80 ^{ns}	.04	
	2	6.87	0.90			
	3	6.47	2.19			

Note. ^aVersion: 1 Completely English; 2 Partly English; 3 Completely Dutch. *ns* = not significant, *** $p < .001$. The scores on attitudes towards the organization and the job, text evaluation, and estimated comprehension are scores on seven-point scales, where 1 = negative and 7 = positive. The score relating to actual comprehension gives mean number of correct paraphrases out of a total of nine items.

7.3.4 Conclusion and discussion

The aim of our study was to test how the effectiveness of the genre of job advertisements as found on the Dutch job site Monsterboard.nl is influenced by one of its form characteristics, the use of English.

Our experiment showed that the use of English had no effect on respondents' attitudes towards the position that is advertised and towards the company that is offering the job. It also did not influence text evaluation. These findings concur with those reported by Renkema et al. (2001) and Van Meurs et al. (2004) [Section 7.2 above] for printed job ads. They do not support claims made in the literature about the prestige- and image-enhancing effect of the use of English in advertising in non-English-speaking countries. Our findings also do not provide support for specific claims and speculations about the effect of the use of English in job advertisements in non-English-speaking countries: the use of English did not make the job that was advertised sound more attractive and challenging, nor did it give the job more status.

Respondents' own estimation of their understanding of the English words and phrases in the completely English job ad was significantly higher than that of their Dutch equivalents in the completely Dutch version. There were no statistically significant differences in respondents' actual comprehension of the manipulated terms between the three versions of the job ad. As is suggested in the literature, these findings indicate that the use of English is indeed not a problem for young and highly educated Dutch respondents. These findings are different from those in Van Meurs et al. (2004) [Section 7.2 above], where the completely Dutch job advertisement scored better than the partly English version on both estimated and actual comprehension. It may be that the manipulated English words and phrases in the current study were simpler than those in the earlier experiment.

A limitation of the current study was that, because there were not enough computers available at the time of the experiment, the job ads were not presented online but on paper. This affects the ecological validity of our experiment, even though the advertisements were constructed to look like advertisements from Monsterboard.nl in terms of layout, headings, and textual units, and even though it is also feasible that job seekers print job ads from job sites when they wish to look at them more closely. In further

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research, therefore, respondents should be presented with online job ads on computers to make the task more realistic.

In spite of this limitation, it may be concluded from our experiment that in a number of important respects the form characteristic of the use of English did not influence (either positively or negatively) the effectiveness of the genre texts in achieving the main communicative purpose of the genre of job advertisements, persuading suitable candidates to apply for the vacancy that is advertised. We hope that this study has further underlined that future studies of job advertisements and other genres of organizational communication should investigate not only the moves and linguistic features that characterize a particular genre, and the reasons for their use, but also the effect of genre characteristics on the intended target groups.

Acknowledgements

We wish to thank Mr. Aliet of the Hogeschool Zeeland at Flushing, the Netherlands, Jeroen Bulten, our colleagues Marinel Gerritsen, Elizabeth de Groot, Berna Hendriks, Catherine Nickerson and Brigitte Planken, and the four personnel officers who pre-tested the job ads, for their help with this paper. Parts of this paper were published in Van Meurs, Korzilius, & Den Hollander (2006c).

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Appendix 7.2: The three versions of the job advertisements used in the experiment

Version 1: The completely English version



NL – Zeeland - Middelburg - Sales Assistant

Company

The Fruit World is an exporter and importer of fruit within Europe. We buy direct from growers in France, Spain and Italy. We also have an active export policy. A large part of our turnover is achieved through exports to Luxembourg, France, Germany, Scandinavia and the United Kingdom. We are always looking for the best product at the most competitive price. For this reason, our company is divided into different departments, each with its own specific expertise. Our sales department is looking for a talented sales assistant.

Role

As a sales assistant you will support the sales managers in achieving their commercial objectives. You will be the first point of contact for customers in the absence of the sales managers, because you have the necessary know-how to offer an optimal service. You will respond quickly to questions from customers and actively help build good customer relations. You will deal with the sales managers' administration, including drawing up reports, preparing customer visits, doing translations and keeping track of appointments.

Requirements

You have a HEAO degree. Your social and communicative skills are excellent. You can work independently, and at the same time you are a team player. You are pro-active and ambitious. A good command of English is a must.

We Offer

We offer you a varied and challenging job with many opportunities regarding career development, salary and fringe benefits.

How to apply

If you have the background and skills we are looking for, we would like to hear from you! Send a letter with a full CV to The Fruit World, Human Resources, Bloemerstraat 71, 4330 ED Middelburg. For more information about this position, please contact Marloes Waal, ph. 0118 – 220215.

Additional Information

Position Type: Full-time

Ref: Sales Assistant

Contact Information

Marloes Waal
info@thefruitworld.nl
The Fruit World
Bloemerstraat 71
4330 ED Middelburg
Ph.: 0118-220215
Fax: 0118- 220214

[Click here to see all "The Fruit World" opportunities](#)
[Click here to see all "The Fruit World" opportunities](#)

[E-mail to a friend](#)

[Learn more about "The Fruit World"](#)

APPLY ONLINE

Version 2: The partly English version



NL – Zeeland - Middelburg - Sales Assistant

Organisatie

The Fruit World is importeur en exporteur van fruit binnen Europa. Wij kopen direct in bij telers uit Frankrijk, Spanje en Italië. Tevens hebben wij een actief exportbeleid. Een groot deel van de omzet wordt behaald in export naar onder andere Luxemburg, Frankrijk, Duitsland, Scandinavië en het Verenigd Koninkrijk. Wij zijn altijd op zoek naar het beste product voor de gunstigste prijs. Daarom is onze organisatie ingedeeld in verschillende afdelingen, elk met haar specifieke expertise. Onze sales afdeling is op zoek naar een getalenteerde sales assistant.

Functiebeschrijving

Als sales assistant ondersteun je de sales managers in het behalen van hun commerciële doelstellingen. Je bent het eerste aanspreekpunt van de klant bij afwezigheid van de sales managers, omdat je over de nodige knowhow beschikt om een optimale service aan te bieden. Je reageert snel op vragen van de klant en bouwt actief mee aan goede klantrelaties. Je verzorgt de administratie van de sales managers, wat onder meer inhoudt het opstellen van rapporten, het voorbereiden van klantbezoeken, het maken van vertalingen en het bijhouden van afspraken.

Functie-eisen

Je hebt een afgeronde HEAO opleiding. Je sociale en communicatieve vaardigheden zijn uitstekend. Je kunt zelfstandig werken en bovendien ben je een teamplayer. Je bent pro-actief en ambitieus. Een goede beheersing van het Engels is een must.

Aanbod

Wij bieden je een afwisselende en uitdagende baan met veel mogelijkheden ten aanzien van loopbaanontwikkeling, salariering en secundaire arbeidsvoorwaarden.

Sollicitatieprocedure

Als je de achtergrond en vaardigheden hebt die wij zoeken, dan horen wij graag van je! Stuur een brief met volledig CV aan The Fruit World, Human Resources, Bloemerstraat 71, 4330 ED Middelburg. Voor nadere informatie over deze functie kun je contact opnemen met Marloes Waal, tel. 0118-220215.

Aanvullende Informatie

Type: Full Time
Ref: Sales Assistant

Contact Informatie

Marloes Waal
info@thefruitworld.nl
The Fruit World
Bloemerstraat 71
4330 ED Middelburg
Tel: 0118-220215
Fax: 0118- 220214

[Klik hier voor alle vacatures van "The Fruit World"](#)
[Klik hier voor alle vacatures van "The Fruit World"](#)

[E-mail deze vacature naar een vriend](#)

[Meer informatie over "The Fruit World"](#)

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Version 3: The completely Dutch version



NL – Zeeland - Middelburg – Verkoopmedewerker

Organisatie

De Fruit Wereld is importeur en exporteur van fruit binnen Europa. Wij kopen direct in bij telers uit Frankrijk, Spanje en Italië. Tevens hebben wij een actief exportbeleid. Een groot deel van onze omzet wordt behaald in export naar onder andere Luxemburg, Frankrijk, Duitsland, Scandinavië en het Verenigd Koninkrijk. Wij zijn altijd op zoek naar het beste product voor de gunstigste prijs. Daarom is onze organisatie ingedeeld in verschillende afdelingen, elk met haar specifieke expertise. Onze verkoopafdeling is op zoek naar een getalenteerde verkoopmedewerker.

Functiebeschrijving

Als verkoopmedewerker ondersteun je de verkoopleiders in het behalen van hun commerciële doelstellingen. Je bent het eerste aanspreekpunt van de klant bij afwezigheid van de verkoopleiders, omdat je over de nodige kennis beschikt om een optimale dienstverlening aan te bieden. Je reageert snel op vragen van de klant en bouwt actief mee aan goede klantrelaties. Je verzorgt de administratie van de verkoopleiders, wat onder meer inhoudt het opstellen van rapporten, het voorbereiden van klantbezoeken, het maken van vertalingen en het bijhouden van afspraken.

Functie-eisen

Je hebt een afgeronde HEAO opleiding. Je sociale en communicatieve vaardigheden zijn uitstekend. Je kunt zelfstandig werken en bovendien functioneer je goed in een groep. Je bent pro-actief en ambitieus. Een goede beheersing van het Engels is een noodzaak.

Aanbod

Wij bieden je een afwisselende en uitdagende baan met veel mogelijkheden ten aanzien van loopbaanontwikkeling, salariering en secundaire arbeidsvoorwaarden.

Sollicitatieprocedure

Als je de achtergrond en vaardigheden hebt die wij zoeken, dan horen wij graag van je! Stuur een brief met volledig CV aan De Fruit Wereld, Personeelszaken, Bloemerstraat 71, 4330 ED Middelburg. Voor nadere informatie over deze functie kunt u contact opnemen met Marloes Waal, tel. 0118-220215.

Aanvullende Informatie

Type: Voltijd

Ref: Verkoopmedewerker

Contact Informatie

Marloes Waal
info@defruitwereld.nl
De Fruit Wereld
Bloemerstraat 71
4330 ED Middelburg
Tel: 0118-220215
Fax: 0118- 220214

[Klik hier voor alle vacatures van "De Fruit Wereld"](#)
[Klik hier voor alle vacatures van "De Fruit Wereld"](#)

[E-mail deze vacature naar een vriend](#)

[Meer informatie over "De Fruit Wereld"](#)

SOLLICITEER DIRECT

7.4 The effect of English job titles in job advertisements on Dutch respondents²³

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Abstract

This paper reports on a study that tested the effect on Dutch respondents of using English in job titles. One half of the respondents evaluated five English job titles, and the other half evaluated the equivalent Dutch job titles. The results of the experiment support claims about the effect of English in job titles in the Netherlands and other non-English-speaking countries which had not previously been tested experimentally. In those cases where there were statistically significant differences, English job titles were evaluated worse than their Dutch counterparts, while jobs with English titles were assessed more positively, were thought to have higher salaries, and were on the whole considered to be more international. Contrary to what is suggested in the literature, where there were significant differences, jobs with English titles were not considered more gender neutral, but in fact were perceived to be more male-oriented than their Dutch equivalents. Although no statistically significant differences were found between the associations evoked by equivalent English and Dutch job titles, our findings

²³ This study was published as Van Meurs, Korzilius, Planken, and Fairley (2007), which is reprinted here with slight modifications. New publications details have been added for publications which were listed as "to appear" in the original article but which have now come out. For references to articles that are included in this dissertation, cross references to the chapters and sections concerned have been added between square brackets. The references from the bibliography of the original article have been included in the list of references for the whole of this dissertation, which can be found on pp. 409-431.

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support the hypothesis, formulated with respect to English in advertising in non-English-speaking countries, that English words do not just have referential meaning but also carry symbolic value.

7.4.1 Introduction

English is used widely in the Netherlands in various domains, including business, the media and advertising (e.g. Berns, 1995; Claus & Taeldeman, 1989; Gerritsen & Nickerson, 2004; Ridder, 1995; Van der Sijs, 1996). One of the areas in which English is used frequently in the Netherlands is job titles, for instance in job advertisements (Schreiner, 1990). A number of reasons have been given to explain this phenomenon. It has been suggested that the use of English instead of Dutch in job titles gives a position more prestige and status (De Koning, 1989; Peereboom, 1991). This observation about the effect of the use of English can also be seen from a broader perspective, as it is in line with claims, for instance by advertising agencies, about the prestige-enhancing effect of English in product advertising in countries from the expanding circle of world Englishes (Alm, 2003, p. 151; Gerritsen, Korzilius, Van Meurs, & Gijsbers, 2000, p. 20; Haarmann, 1989, p. 234; Takashi, 1990, p. 329). In more general terms, English in advertising in non-English-speaking countries, like other foreign languages in advertising, is said not to have only referential meaning, but also “symbolic value” (Kelly-Holmes, 2005, p. 24; see also Haarmann, 1989). The use of English is supposed to be associated with, for instance, modernization and internationalism (Bhatia, 1992, p. 213) or “a young, dynamic, international lifestyle” (Gerritsen et al., 2000, p. 20). The international aspect of the use of English is also mentioned as an argument for using English job titles on a more practical level. It has been claimed that English job titles are necessary because the holders of these titles operate internationally, for instance in meetings with members of the same multinational company but who are from different countries (De Koning, 1989). Another reason for the use of English job titles instead of Dutch job titles is that English job titles are often considered to be gender neutral, since English titles, unlike Dutch ones, usually have no special female form, i.e. one which is distinctive from a male form (cf. De Caluwe & Van Santen, 2001, p. 18; Gerritsen, 2001, p. 108; Gerritsen, 2002, p. 103).

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So far only arguments in favor of English in job titles in the Netherlands have been cited. However, there is also opposition to the use of English in this context on purist grounds. It has, for example, been called an illustration of “linguistic poverty” (De Koning, 1989, p. 218), and “odd” and “exaggerated” (Peereboom, 1991, p. 7).

The use of English in job titles is not limited to the Netherlands. The use of English job titles in job advertisements has also been commented on in other European expanding-circle countries, such as Finland (Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2003), Germany (Hilgendorf, 1996; Hilgendorf & Martin, 2001), Sweden (Larson, 1990), and Switzerland (Watts, 2002). With respect to the Swedish and Swiss situations, too, it is claimed that English job titles make a job sound more attractive and challenging (Larson, 1990, p. 368; Watts, 2002, pp. 117-118). In Finland opposition to the use of English in job titles is reported as well. The Department of Finnish at the University of Helsinki has conducted a campaign in which it claims that such titles in Finnish job ads “blur the job description and unnecessarily mystify functions in the business world” (Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2003, p. 8). However, there has been little research determining what attitude respondents in these non-English-speaking countries in fact have towards this use of English.

As far as we know, there has been only one empirical study specifically relating to the impact of English job titles in a non-English-speaking country, a survey in which around 2400 youngsters in Germany (all of whom were registered with the national employment bureau, the *Bundesagentur für Arbeit*, as applicants for training places) were asked about their general attitude to English as opposed to German occupational titles (Ulrich, Eberhard, & Krewerth, 2004). Only 18% of the female respondents and only 9% of the male respondents indicated that they often found English job titles more attractive than German ones. The respondents also made incidental remarks to the effect that English job titles were confusing or boastful. However, these views were not expressed in response to specific job titles.

Finally, Luna and Peracchio (2002a) point out that there may be differences between the cognitive schemes and associations connected with words in someone’s first or second language, even if these words are translation equivalents, and that such differences may lead to differences in attitude to the use of this first or second language in advertising. As far as

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we know, however, associations with equivalent job titles in different languages have not yet been investigated.

On the basis of the literature discussed above, we formulated three research questions. Inspired by Luna and Peracchio (2002a), we were interested in researching whether there were differences between the associations evoked by English job titles and by their Dutch equivalents. Luna and Peracchio (2002a, p. 470) recommend studying differences in *numbers* of associations in order to determine “which language includes the most conceptual links” and studying the *overlap* between associations to decide whether “the two translation-equivalent stimuli have similar meanings”. We also follow Hornikx, Van Meurs and Starren (2005), who investigated whether ads in different languages evoked the same number of *positive*, *neutral* and *negative* associations. Thus our first research question was the following:

RQ 1: Are there differences between English and equivalent Dutch job titles in the associations they invoke in terms of a) total number of associations, b) number of positive, neutral and negative associations, c) number of associations that are common to English and Dutch equivalent occupational titles, and d) number of associations that are unique to an English or Dutch position title?

Our second research question was based on comments in the literature which negatively evaluate English job titles in the Netherlands, Germany and Finland, for instance calling them less attractive and more confusing than their counterparts in the local language, and denouncing them as unnecessary, strange and pompous, sometimes explicitly on purist grounds (De Koning, 1989; Peereboom, 1991; Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2003, Ulrich et al., 2004). We wanted to find out whether respondents indeed evaluated English job titles differently from Dutch equivalent job titles.

RQ 2: Are there differences between respondents’ evaluations of English and equivalent Dutch job titles, in terms of attractiveness, clarity, and naturalness?

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Our third research question related to claims in the literature about the impact of the use of English or Dutch in job titles on the perception of the positions indicated by these titles. Are positions with English job titles indeed seen as carrying more prestige (cf. De Koning, 1989; Peereboom, 1991), as more international (cf. Bhatia, 1992; De Koning, 1989; Gerritsen, et al., 2000), and as more gender-neutral (cf. De Caluwe & Van Santen, 2001; Gerritsen, 2001; Gerritsen, 2002)? In connection with the prestige associated with the use of English, Withagen and Boves ask “would a *sales manager* earn more than a *verkoopleider*?” (1991, p. 6; our translation). In more general terms, we wished to determine whether jobs with English occupational titles were evaluated differently from positions with equivalent Dutch job titles.

RQ 3: Are there differences between respondents’ evaluations of jobs with English and equivalent Dutch job titles, in terms of a) attitudes to the job, b) estimated gross monthly starting salary, c) attitudes to working in a job, d) evaluation of the international nature of the job, and e) evaluation of the gender orientation of the job?

7.4.2 Method

In this section we describe the set-up of the experiment that we conducted to answer the research questions formulated in the Introduction.

Design and respondents

The experiment had a between-subject design. One half of the respondents evaluated five English job titles, and the other half evaluated the equivalent Dutch job titles. There were 60 respondents, 30 men and 30 women, equally distributed over the two language conditions. The respondents were all students at the Radboud University Nijmegen, the Netherlands, majoring in different subjects. The average age was 23.4 years ($SD = 2.33$, min. = 18, max. = 30).

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Materials

The five English and five equivalent Dutch job titles used in the experiment are shown in Table 7.6. They were based on the job titles in a random sample of 392 positions out of 1000 displayed on the Dutch job site Monsterboard.nl (<http://www.monsterboard.nl/>) on 3 June 2005. We originally sampled 400 advertisements, but discarded eight ads that offered jobs outside the Netherlands. We chose to analyze ads from Monsterboard.nl, because this is the job site that is best known among Dutch consumers (NIPO, 2003) and that is used most frequently by highly educated Dutch job seekers (NOA, 2004, p. 16). This educational profile matches that of our respondents.

For each pair of equivalent English and Dutch job titles that were used as stimuli in the experiment, either the English or the Dutch title was taken literally from our Monsterboard.nl sample. The English titles taken from the sample were *Financial Analyst*, *Maintenance Engineer* and *Sales Engineer*. The Dutch titles selected from the sample were *Financieel Analist*, *Personeelsfunctionaris* and *Verkoopleider*. One of the criteria for choosing these English and Dutch job titles was that equivalents in the other language were available. The equivalents *Financial Analyst* / *Financieel Analist* were found in the sample of Monsterboard.nl job titles. The translation equivalents for all the other job titles were found in English-Dutch and Dutch-English dictionaries (Van Amerongen, 1989a, 1989b; Martin & Tops, 2002a, 2002b), and in a dedicated dictionary of job titles (Schreiner, 1990). When we checked whether these job titles were actually used on Dutch (.nl) and British (.uk) websites, this indeed turned out to be the case. Most of the words in the English job titles occurred frequently in our sample of job titles from Monsterboard.nl: *engineer* (27x), *manager* (23x), *sales* (20x), *analyst* (8x), *financial* (3x), and *maintenance* (2x); *officer* occurred only once. Two of these words, *engineer* and *manager*, are included in Geerts et al.'s (1999) dictionary of the Dutch language, which may be taken to indicate that they have become accepted in Dutch.

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Table 7.6. The five English and equivalent Dutch job titles used in the experiment

English job title	Dutch job title
Personnel Officer	Personeelsfunctionaris
Sales Manager	Verkoopleider
Maintenance Engineer	Onderhoudstechnicus
Financial Analyst	Financieel Analist
Sales Engineer	Technisch Verkoper

The instrument

To determine how respondents reacted to English or Dutch job titles, they were asked to fill in a questionnaire. For each English or Dutch job title, this survey contained questions relating to 1) respondents' associations with the job title; 2) respondents' evaluation of the job title; 3) respondents' evaluation of the job indicated by the position title.

Associations with job titles

Respondents' associations with an English job title or its Dutch equivalent were elicited by asking them to write down as many thoughts as possible evoked by a certain job title (e.g. "the position of maintenance engineer") on numbered lines, one thought per line (based on Luna & Peracchio, 2002a, p. 464; Cacioppo & Petty, 1981, p. 318). They were told that they had between two and three minutes to do this.

To determine whether there were differences between associations with English and Dutch job titles, we first of all compared the total number of associations, and the number of positive, neutral and negative associations for the five English and the five equivalent Dutch job titles (cf. Hornikx, Van Meurs, & Starren, 2005). The valence of an association (whether it was positive, neutral or negative) was determined by two independent judges. After the two judges had independently evaluated the valence of the associations, they consulted and reached agreement on the valence of the items where their original evaluations had differed. These new consensual evaluations were used in the final analysis of the respondents' associations. Two judges together determined for each English job title and its Dutch equivalent whether associations were common to both language versions and whether associations were unique to one of the two

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language versions (cf. Luna & Peracchio, 2002a, p. 470). Associations which were not identical but broadly similar, such as “boring” and “boring work”, were considered the same.

To measure the effect of the use of English or Dutch on the respondents’ *attitude to the job titles* and *evaluation of the jobs*, seven-point scales were used, anchored by opposing adjectives, most of which had been used in earlier studies (e.g. Renkema, Vallen, & Hoeken, 2001; Van Meurs, Korzilius, & Hermans, 2004 [see Section 7.2.2]; Van Meurs, Korzilius, & Den Hollander, 2006b [see Section 7.3.2]). To measure the internal consistency (reliability) of the scales, i.e. whether the various items measured the same underlying concept, Cronbach’s α was calculated, and evaluated using the criteria in Van Wijk (2000, p. 217); for English-language discussions of the notion of Cronbach’s alpha and its values, see Field, 2009, pp. 673-681; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006, p. 137). For every scale where Cronbach’s α was at least adequate (.70 or higher), we calculated the composite means of the items. It turned out that Cronbach’s α was not high enough for any of the scales to combine the scores for the five Dutch and the five English job titles into scores for a *group* of Dutch and a *group* of English job titles. Instead, we compared the scores for each English job title and its Dutch equivalent.

Evaluation of job titles

Respondents’ evaluation of a job title was measured with the statement “I think the job title [e.g. sales engineer] is”, followed by semantic differential scales with ten pairs of adjectives: *difficult* – *easy*, *natural* – *unnatural*, *unclear* – *clear*, *attractive* – *unattractive*, *strange* – *normal*, *simple* – *complex*, *trendy* – *not trendy*, *not appealing* – *very appealing*, *not old-fashioned* – *very old-fashioned*, and *catchy* – *not catchy*. As for the reliability of the scales, when the pairs *trendy* – *not trendy* and *not old-fashioned* – *very old-fashioned* were left out, Cronbach’s α was .70 or higher for each English and Dutch job title (qualification: adequate or good). We, therefore, calculated the composite means of the other eight items.

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Evaluation of jobs indicated by English or Dutch job titles

We measured the impact of the use of English or Dutch in job titles on five aspects of the respondents' evaluation of jobs: 1) their *attitudes to the job*; 2) their *estimation of the gross monthly starting salary*; 3) their *attitudes to working in a job*; 4) their *evaluation of the international nature of the job*; 5) their *evaluation of the gender orientation of the job*.

The respondents' *attitudes to the job* were determined with the statement "The position, [e.g. personnel officer], seems to me", followed by scales with six pairs of opposing qualifications: *to involve a great deal of responsibility* – *to involve little responsibility*, *varied* – *monotonous*, *low-level* – *high-level*, *interesting* – *uninteresting*, *important* – *unimportant*, *nice* – *not nice*. When the pair of opposing adjectives *important* – *unimportant* was left out, for seven out of the ten job titles, Cronbach's α was adequate or good (.75 or higher), for two job titles (*Financial Analyst* and *Onderhoudstechnicus*) it was moderate (.67 and .62, respectively), and for *Financieel Analist* it was insufficient (.52). Since the internal consistency of the scale was insufficient for *Financieel Analist*, we calculated item scores for this job title and also for its English equivalent *Financial Analyst*, in order to be able to compare the two. For all the other job titles, we calculated composite means for all the items except *important* – *unimportant*. In doing so, we followed Van Wijk (2000, p. 216), who points out that combining item scores is justified even if Cronbach's α is between .60 and .70, when other similar scales in the same experiment have an adequate reliability.

In order to determine respondents' views on the level of the jobs, a multiple-choice question was included asking them what they thought the *gross monthly starting salary* would be.

The respondents' attitudes to working in a job indicated by an English or equivalent Dutch job title were measured with the statement "Working in a company as a [e.g. sales manager]" seems to me", followed by scales with six pairs of adjectives: *interesting* – *uninteresting*, *monotonous* – *varied*, *exciting* – *boring*, *not gratifying* – *gratifying*, *pleasant* – *unpleasant*, *not challenging* – *challenging*. While an earlier question measured the respondents' attitudes to a position, this question aimed to determine how they felt about *working* in such a position, which we took to be more personally involving and more directly relevant to application intentions.

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The scales were reliable (for each job title, Cronbach's α was .83 or higher; qualification: good). We therefore calculated composite means for all the items per job title.

Two seven-point scale items were used to measure respondents' *views of the international nature of the job*: whether someone in a particular position has many/few international contacts, and whether working in a particular position involves many or few activities abroad. The scores on these items will be discussed separately, since Cronbach's α was not high enough to combine the item scores (for nine out of ten job titles, α ranged between -.61 and .44).

Two seven-point scale items were included to determine respondents' *views of the gender orientation of jobs* with English or equivalent Dutch job titles: "the position is more male / more female" and "the position is held by more men / more women". Since Cronbach's α was not high enough to combine the item scores (α 's ranged between -.30 and .32), the scores on these items will be discussed separately.

Procedure

Each respondent was given a written questionnaire consisting of instructions, followed by five job titles, each with accompanying questions (successively about associations, attitude to the job title, and evaluation of the job), and finally questions about background variables, such as sex, age, and major. The respondents filled in the questionnaire individually, either at the Radboud University Nijmegen or in their own home, with one of the researchers being present. At the beginning of the booklet, the study was described as a study for an MA thesis about job titles in job advertisements. The specific aim of the study, i.e. determining the effect of the use of Dutch or English in these job titles, was not mentioned in order not to influence the respondents' answers.

7.4.3 Findings and discussion

The results of the experiment will be discussed in the order of the research questions listed above. First, we will discuss the *associations* evoked by

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English and equivalent Dutch job titles. Secondly, we will present respondents' *attitudes to job titles* in the two languages. Finally, we will consider the impact of the language choice in job titles on respondents' *evaluation of the jobs* covered by these job titles. For each dependent variable, we will first present the findings, and then place these in the context of the literature relating to this variable.

The associations respondents have with English and equivalent Dutch job titles

Table 7.7 shows the number of associations the respondents wrote down for the five English and the five Dutch job titles together. A chi-square test revealed that there were no statistically significant differences between the English and Dutch job titles in the total number of associations, nor in the number of positive, neutral and negative associations [$\chi^2(2) = 0.45, p = .503$]. Positive associations included "good social skills" and "creative". Neutral associations were, for instance, "money" and "machines". Examples of negative associations were "boring" and "terrible".

Table 7.7. Number of associations with five English vs. five equivalent Dutch job titles

Valence	Number of associations with English job titles	Number of associations with Dutch job titles
Positive	38 (9%)	48 (11%)
Neutral	354 (85%)	336 (79%)
Negative	25 (6%)	39 (9%)
Total	417	423

As can be seen in Table 7.8, for each English and equivalent Dutch job title the number of associations that were unique to either the English or Dutch variant was larger than the number of associations that were the same for both variants. However, chi-square tests indicated that these differences were not statistically significant.

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Table 7.8. Number of associations that are shared between English and equivalent Dutch job titles and that are unique to English or Dutch job titles

Job title	Shared	Unique	Total	$\chi^2 (df = 1)$
Personnel Officer	30	42	72	0.33, $p = .56$
Personeelsfunctionaris	28	32	60	
Sales Manager	19	53	72	0.18, $p = .67$
Verkoopleider	19	45	64	
Maintenance Engineer	19	33	52	0.23, $p = .63$
Onderhoudstechnicus	21	30	51	
Financial Analyst	30	36	66	0.01, $p = .91$
Financieel Analist	32	40	72	
Sales Engineer	9	47	56	0.01, $p = .93$
Technisch Verkoper	9	45	54	

The absence of statistically significant differences in the total number of associations between equivalent English and Dutch job titles provides no evidence to support the claim that words in someone's first language have more cognitive links than translation equivalents in a second language (Luna & Peracchio, 2002a, p. 470). There were also no statistically significant differences between the number of associations that were common to English and Dutch equivalent job titles and the number of associations that were unique to job titles in each of the two languages. Thus no support was found for the suggestion that there may be differences in associations between words that are translation equivalents in people's first and second language, for instance because the words are learned and used under different circumstances (Luna & Peracchio, 2002a, p. 460). This may be because for the specific English and Dutch terms used in our experiment, the contexts in which respondents encounter them are not different. Both English and Dutch words in job titles may be typically encountered in work-related settings at a relatively late stage in respondents' lives.

Respondents' evaluation of English and equivalent Dutch job titles

The respondents' evaluation of the five English and equivalent five Dutch job titles – in terms of attractiveness, naturalness and comprehensibility – is displayed in Table 7.9. The English job titles *Personnel Officer*, *Maintenance Engineer* and *Financial Analyst* were evaluated significantly worse than their Dutch equivalents. For the other two job titles, no statistically significant differences were found.

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Table 7.9. Evaluation of job titles (English vs. Dutch) (1= negative; 7 = positive)

Job title	Mean	SD	t-value (df = 58)	η^2
Personnel Officer	3.42	1.00	2.37*	.09
Personeelsfunctionaris	4.05	1.07		
Sales Manager	4.19	0.94	1.24 ^{ns}	.03
Verkoopleider	4.49	0.91		
Maintenance Engineer	3.16	0.99	5.21***	.32
Onderhoudstechnicus	4.35	0.76		
Financial Analyst	3.97	0.72	2.28*	.08
Financieel Analist	4.47	0.95		
Sales Engineer	3.03	0.85	1.37 ^{ns}	.03
Technisch Verkoper	3.34	0.92		

Note. ns = not significant, * $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$.

The fact that three English job titles were evaluated worse than their Dutch equivalents is in line with observations by individual commentators who find the use of English in job titles in the Netherlands “odd” (e.g. Peereboom, 1991, p. 7), and similar opposition to English in job titles in Finland (Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2003). It is also in line with the findings of the survey among German youngsters discussed earlier, in which only a minority indicated that they often found English job titles more attractive than their German equivalents (Ulrich et al., 2004).

Respondents’ evaluation of jobs with English or equivalent Dutch job titles

In this section we will present the results regarding the impact of the use of English or Dutch in job titles on five aspects of the respondents’ evaluation of jobs: 1) their *attitudes to the job*; 2) their *estimation of the gross monthly starting salary*; 3) their *attitudes to working in a job*; 4) their *evaluation of the international nature of the job*; and 5) their *evaluation of the gender orientation of the job*.

Respondents’ attitudes to jobs with English or equivalent Dutch job titles

Table 7.10 shows respondents’ attitudes to jobs with English or equivalent Dutch job titles, except for *Financial Analyst* / *Financieel Analist*. The attitudes

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to two jobs with English job titles, *Maintenance Engineer* and *Sales Engineer*, were more favorable than to their Dutch counterparts. For two job titles no significant differences were found.

Table 7.10. Attitude to jobs with English vs. Dutch job titles (1= negative; 7= positive)

Job title	Mean	SD	t-value (df = 58)	η^2
Personnel Officer	4.18	0.94	1.12 ^{ns}	.02
Personeelsfunctionaris	3.90	0.99		
Sales Manager	4.15	1.04	0.13 ^{ns}	.00
Verkoopleider	4.11	0.95		
Maintenance Engineer	3.75	1.15	2.38*	.09
Onderhoudstechnicus	3.15	0.78		
Sales Engineer	3.96	1.03	2.34*	.09
Technisch Verkoper	3.32	1.09		

Note. ns = not significant, * $p < .05$.

Table 7.11 presents respondents' scores on individual questionnaire items relating to their attitude to the position of *Financial Analyst* / *Financieel Analist*, since the internal consistency of the scale for *Financieel Analist* was insufficient. No significant differences were found.

Table 7.11. Attitude to job: *Financial Analyst* vs. *Financieel Analist*

	English job title Mean/ SD	Dutch job title Mean/ SD	t-value (df = 58)	η^2
Little/much responsibility	5.50/ 1.01	5.43/ 1.10	0.24 ^{ns}	.00
Monotonous/varied	3.17/ 1.49	3.73/ 1.48	1.48 ^{ns}	.04
Low-level/high-level	5.13/ 1.14	5.17/ 1.29	0.11 ^{ns}	.00
Interesting/uninteresting	3.00/ 1.49	3.67/ 1.47	1.75 ^{ns}	.05
Nice/not nice	3.07/ 1.60	3.53/ 1.61	1.13 ^{ns}	.02

Note. ns = not significant.

The more favorable attitude that respondents took to two positions with English job titles in terms of perceived level and attractiveness support claims in the literature that English job titles give jobs more status and make them more attractive (De Koning, 1989; Larson, 1990; Peereboom, 1991; Watts, 2002). These results are in accordance with more general claims about the prestige- and image-enhancing function of English in advertising in non-English-speaking countries (Alm, 2003; Gerritsen, et al. 2000; Haarmann, 1989; Takashi, 1990).

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Respondents' estimations of the gross monthly starting salary for jobs with English or equivalent Dutch job titles

Table 7.12 shows the number of respondents who gave a particular estimate for the gross monthly starting salary of jobs with English or equivalent Dutch job titles. For two English job titles, *Maintenance Engineer* and *Sales Engineer*, these estimates were significantly higher than for their Dutch counterparts. For the other three job titles, there were no statistically significant differences.

Table 7.12. Number of respondents giving estimations of gross monthly salary for jobs with English vs. Dutch job titles

Job title	€1000- €1500	€1500- €2000	€2000- €2500	€2500- €3000	€3000 or more	Mean Rank	Z ^a
Personnel Officer	2	14	9	5	0	31.20	0.34 ^{ns}
Personeelsfunctionaris	2	14	12	2	0	29.80	
Sales Manager	2	10	14	4	0	31.50	0.47 ^{ns}
Verkoopleider	6	7	13	1	3	29.50	
Maintenance Engineer	8	10	7	3	2	35.58	2.38*
Onderhoudstechnicus	16	9	5	0	0	25.42	
Financial Analyst	0	11	10	5	4	27.40	1.44 ^{ns}
Financieel Analist	0	5	12	9	4	33.60	
Sales Engineer	1	13	8	7	1	35.37	2.27*
Technisch Verkoper	8	12	6	4	0	25.63	

Note. ^a Tested with Mann-Whitney Test; ns = not significant, * $p < .05$.

The significant differences found for estimated gross monthly starting salary confirm the results for attitude to the job. For the same two jobs that attracted a more favorable attitude when they had an English job title, respondents also thought the gross monthly starting salary would be higher for positions with English titles, confirming the prestige-enhancing function of English in these cases.

Respondents' attitudes to working in jobs with English or equivalent Dutch job titles

Respondents' attitudes to working in jobs with English or equivalent Dutch job titles are presented in Table 7.13. The results were mixed. For three job titles no significant differences were found. In the case of the English job title

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Financial Analyst the attitude was more negative than for its Dutch counterpart, but for the English job title *Sales Engineer* it was more positive than for its Dutch equivalent.

Table 7.13. Attitudes to working in jobs with English vs. Dutch job titles (1 = negative; 7 = positive)

Job title	Mean	SD	t-value (df = 58)	η^2
Personnel Officer	3.86	1.15	1.37 ^{ns}	.03
Personeelsfunctionaris	3.39	1.50		
Sales Manager	3.97	1.27	0.23 ^{ns}	.00
Verkoopleider	3.90	1.16		
Maintenance Engineer	3.23	1.27	1.21 ^{ns}	.03
Onderhoudstechnicus	2.89	0.90		
Financial Analyst	3.13	1.29	2.06*	.07
Financieel Analist	3.76	1.05		
Sales Engineer	3.59	1.06	2.37*	.09
Technisch Verkoper	2.96	1.01		

Note. ns = not significant, * $p < .05$.

The significant differences found for attitude to working in a job with English or Dutch job title do not provide a consistent picture, with one “English” (*Sales Engineer*) and one “Dutch” job (*Financieel Analist*) being judged better than their counterparts in the other language. We cannot explain why the results for attitudes to working in a job with an English or Dutch job title do not unequivocally fit the pattern found for attitude to the job and estimated salary, where for two job titles the use of English was found to enhance the status of a job.

Respondents’ evaluation of the international nature of jobs with English or equivalent Dutch job titles

Table 7.14 displays respondents’ scores on two questions relating to the international nature of jobs with English or equivalent Dutch job titles, i.e. questions about the number of international contacts involved and the number of activities abroad. The scores indicate that in the majority of cases jobs with English job titles were seen as more international. For three jobs (*Personnel Officer*, *Maintenance Engineer* and *Sales Engineer*) the respondents thought that someone holding a job with an English job title had more

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international contacts and more activities abroad than someone with an equivalent Dutch job title. Only in the case of *Financial Analyst* was a person holding a job with a Dutch job title regarded as having more international contacts than someone with the equivalent English job title, but there were no significant differences in respondents' estimation of the number of activities abroad. There were no significant differences in the scores on both questions in the case of *Sales Manager*.

Table 7.14. International image of jobs with English vs. Dutch job titles (1 = few; 7 = many)

Job title	Few/many international contacts			Few/many activities abroad		
	Mean	SD	t-value / η^2	Mean	SD	t-value / η^2
Personnel Officer	2.93	1.26	2.30* / .08	2.80	1.13	2.26* / .08
Personeels-functionaris	2.20	1.22		2.10	1.27	
Sales Manager	4.77	1.43	1.80 ^{ns} / .05	3.77	1.46	0.08 ^{ns} / .00
Verkoopleider	4.00	1.84		3.80	1.81	
Maintenance Engineer	3.07	1.93	3.07** ^a / .14	2.90	1.85	2.63* ^b / .11
Onderhoudstechnicus	1.83	1.05		1.90	0.96	
Financial Analyst	3.23	1.48	2.07* / .07	3.13	1.46	1.07 ^{ns} / .02
Financieel Analist	4.07	1.64		3.53	1.43	
Sales Engineer	4.63	1.33	2.04* / .07	4.60	1.25	4.43*** / .25
Technisch Verkoper	3.80	1.81		3.10	1.37	

Note. ^adf = 58; ^bdf = 44.88; ^cdf = 43.62; ns = not significant, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

The finding that in the majority of cases, a job with an English job title was regarded as being more international is in line with the observation in De Koning (1989) that English job titles are necessary when Dutch employees operate internationally, and with claims that English in advertising is associated with internationalism (Bhatia, 1992) and an international lifestyle (Gerritsen et al., 2000). We cannot explain why, in contrast, in the case of *Financial Analyst* / *Financieel Analist*, the job with the Dutch job title was seen as involving more international contacts.

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Respondents' evaluation of the gender orientation of jobs with English or equivalent Dutch job titles

Table 7.15 presents respondents' scores on two questions about the gender orientation of jobs with English or equivalent Dutch job titles, i.e., whether a job is more of a male or more of a female position and whether it is held by more women or more men. In three out of five cases, jobs with English titles – *Maintenance Engineer*, *Financial Analyst* and *Sales Engineer* – were seen as more male than their Dutch equivalents. One job with an English title, *Financial Analyst*, was regarded as a job that was held by more men than its Dutch counterpart. In the other cases, there were no statistically significant differences in the evaluation of gender orientation between the English and Dutch job titles.

Table 7.15. Gender orientation of jobs with English vs. Dutch job titles (1 = more female job, 7 = more male job; 1 = held by more women, 7 = held by more men)

Job title	More female job / more male job			Job held by more women / by more men		
	Mean	SD	t-value/ η^2	Mean	SD	t-value/ η^2
Personnel Officer	3.73	1.08	0.32 ^{ns} / .00	4.13	1.20	0.17 ^{ns} b / .00
Personeelsfunctionaris	3.63	1.33		4.07	1.72	
Sales Manager	2.97	1.03	0.12 ^{ns} / .00	2.67	1.27	1.17 ^{ns} / .02
Verkoopleider	2.93	1.11		3.03	1.16	
Maintenance Engineer	2.20	1.00	2.65* a / .11	2.43	1.41	1.17 ^{ns} / .02
Onderhoudstechnicus	1.63	0.62		2.07	0.98	
Financial Analyst	5.23	1.14	8.28*** / .54	4.93	1.66	6.06*** / .39
Financieel Analist	2.73	1.20		2.60	1.30	
Sales Engineer	4.77	1.04	8.56*** / .56	2.70	1.21	0.98 ^{ns} / .02
Technisch Verkoper	2.37	1.13		2.37	1.43	

Note. *df* = 58; ^a*df* = 48.29; ^b*df* = 51.71; *ns* = not significant, **p* < .05, *** *p* < .001.

The significant differences found for respondents' evaluation of the gender orientation of the jobs go against suggestions in the literature that English job titles are generally more gender neutral than Dutch job titles because English job titles usually do not have a special female form which is different from a male form, while in Dutch feminine morphological endings are sometimes (but not always) possible (cf. De Caluwe & Van Santen, 2001; Gerritsen, 2001; Gerritsen, 2002). All the Dutch job titles in the experiment had possible forms with feminine morphological endings, even though, when we checked on Dutch web pages, only two were used with any

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frequency (*verkoopleidster*, *financieel analiste*), one (*personeelsfunctionaresse*) was used only once, and two (*onderhoudstechnica*, *technisch verkoopster*) were not encountered at all (see Table 7.16). The fact that in all five cases a feminine Dutch form was theoretically available could have meant that the other Dutch form used in the experiment was seen as more male than the equivalent English job titles. In this light, the finding that in three out of five cases our respondents did not actually see the English job titles as more gender neutral, but as more male, is a surprising result. Table 7.16 shows that the specifically female Dutch forms of the job titles were encountered far less frequently on Dutch web pages than the forms of the Dutch job titles we used in the experiment. On the assumption that it is unlikely that the writers of these documents used so many of the titles without feminine endings to refer to men only, this difference in frequency may indicate that the forms of the Dutch titles used in our experiment are not seen by the majority of Dutch people as specifically male, but as gender neutral. However, this does not explain why in our experiment the majority of English equivalents were seen as being more male oriented.

Table 7.16. Frequency of Dutch forms of job titles found on Dutch web pages (site: nl) on 14 December 2006

Form of the job title used in the experiment	No. of web pages containing the form	Specifically feminine form of the job title	No. of web pages containing the form
Personeelsfunctionaris	83,400	Personeelsfunctionaresse	1
Verkoopleider	52,300	Verkoopleidster	206
Onderhoudstechnicus	17,400	Onderhoudstechnica	0
Financieel Analist	12,200	Financieel Analiste	71
Technisch Verkoper	863	Technisch Verkoopster	0

7.4.4 General conclusion and discussion

The aim of this experiment was to establish the effect on Dutch respondents of the use of English instead of Dutch in job titles, in terms of the associations evoked, evaluation of the job titles, and evaluation of the jobs indicated by the job titles.

For most of the aspects studied, the statistically significant differences found between English and Dutch job titles supported views

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from the literature about the effect of English in this context, which had not been investigated empirically before. In three out of five cases, English job titles were evaluated worse than their Dutch equivalents, in line with purist opposition to the use of English in this area (e.g. De Koning, 1989; Peereboom, 1991; Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2003). Two jobs with English job titles were considered more attractive and more prestigious (cf. De Koning, 1989; Larson, 1990; Peereboom, 1991; Watts, 2002), which was underlined by the fact that they were also thought to have higher salaries than jobs with equivalent Dutch job titles. Three jobs with English job titles were also thought to be more international (cf. Bhatia, 1992; De Koning, 1989).

In two respects, our experiment did not support claims and suggestions from the literature. Firstly, no statistically significant differences were found between the associations evoked by equivalent English and Dutch job titles. This means that for this specific context our study found no evidence that words in people's first language evoke different associations than words in their second language (cf. Luna & Peracchio, 2002a). Secondly, with respect to gender orientation, our findings for respondents' evaluation of jobs with equivalent English and Dutch job titles contradicted what is suggested in the literature about such job titles, i.e. that English job titles are likely to be more gender neutral (e.g. De Caluwe & Van Santen, 2001; Gerritsen, 2001). In our experiment, three jobs with English job titles were in fact perceived to be more male-oriented than their Dutch equivalents.

The findings of the present study are different from the findings of earlier experiments that tested the effect on Dutch respondents of the use of English or Dutch in job advertisements (Renkema et al., 2001; Van Meurs et al., 2004 [Section 7.2 above]; Van Meurs et al., 2006b [Section 7.3 above]). Unlike the present study, the earlier experiments found no statistically significant effects of the use of English or Dutch on respondents' evaluation of the job; they only showed differences in respondents' evaluation of the naturalness of the text. The fact that the use of English or Dutch in job titles but not in full job ads was found to lead to differences in job evaluation may be explained by the amount of information available to respondents to base their judgements on. Full job advertisements provide many more details on various aspects of the job and the organization offering the position. When a job title is the only information respondents have, the impact of the symbolic

value of the language used as opposed to its referential meaning (Haarmann, 1989; Kelly-Holmes, 2005) appears to be greater.

We should not lose sight of the fact that our experiment did not find statistically significant differences between all English and Dutch job titles and for all aspects studied. One possible explanation for this absence of differences in evaluation in a number of cases may be that English job titles are commonly used in the Netherlands. That English occupational titles are common in the Netherlands is pointed out by Schreiner (1990) and is confirmed by the fact that in the sample of 392 job titles from the Dutch job site *Monsterboard.nl* that we used as input for the experiment, 41% contained one or more words of English origin. Earlier studies of print-medium job ads in the Netherlands also show that English words occur regularly in job titles (Gerritsen, 2001; Korzilius, Van Meurs, & Hermans, 2006 [see Section 7.2.3]). Because English is so widespread in job titles in the Netherlands, respondents may to a certain extent have become used to English job titles, and see them as “normal”, which may explain why in a number of respects they are not evaluated differently from Dutch equivalents.

As is shown by the absence of significant differences in the evaluation of English and Dutch job titles in a number of respects, our experiment did not always find support for the views voiced in the literature about the effect of the use of English. Sometimes our experimental findings even contradicted the views expressed in the literature (as in the case of the observed gender orientation of English and Dutch job titles). This may be related to what has been called the “spokesman problem” in relation to attitudes about the use of English in the Netherlands (De Bot & Weltens, 1997, pp. 145-147). The views about the effect of the use of English in job titles expressed in the literature are those of academics, advertising agencies and opinion leaders, such as writers, and the question is to what extent they can speak for “ordinary” language users. De Bot and Weltens (1997) illustrate the spokesman problem by showing that claims by opinion leaders that speakers of Dutch are indifferent about the Dutch language losing ground to English are not borne out by more general surveys. Similarly, as De Bot and Weltens point out, in a survey among French shoppers, Flaitz (1988, p. 197) found that their attitudes to English were more favorable than the hostile attitudes encountered in “the subjective discourse of the French

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elite in official or academic positions". Like earlier experimental studies of the effect of the use of English in product advertising and recruitment advertising in the Netherlands (Gerritsen, 1996; Gerritsen et al., 2000; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt et al., 2007; Renkema et al. 2001; Van Meurs et al., 2004 [Section 7.2 above]; Van Meurs et al., 2006b [Section 7.3 above]), our study showed that respondents' evaluations of the use of English were not always as negative ("odd") nor as positive ("prestige-enhancing") as those found in scholarly and more popular publications. The discrepancies demonstrated by such empirical studies between the views of writers and academics, on the one hand, and more "ordinary" respondents, on the other, underline the need to test claims about attitudes towards the use of English in non-English-speaking countries.

It has been suggested that job titles play an important role in the recruitment process. In general, occupational titles are claimed to have a signaling function, in that they evoke ideas about the activities, demands and rewards involved in the position they refer to (Ulrich & Krewerth, 2004, p. 9). The importance of job titles in job advertisements is underlined by an "eye movement study" carried out by De Witte (1989, p. 212), which suggests that the job title is the element that makes readers of job ads in newspapers decide to move on to the next advertisement or not. Thus, if we look at the findings of our experiment from an organizational recruiting perspective, we may conclude that for some job titles the use of English may be recommended because it makes a job more attractive. However, it should be borne in mind that our respondents were students majoring in a variety of subjects, who might not be interested in or suitable for actually filling the positions featured in the experiment.

The findings of the present study apply to highly educated young respondents and may not be generalized to older and less highly educated populations. It is true that Renkema et al. (2001) found no differences between younger (18- to 22-year-old) and older (45 or older) respondents in their reactions to English or Dutch in job advertisements and shop names. However, Gerritsen (1996) found that respondents over 45 years of age were more negative about completely English product advertisements than were respondents under 25 years old. Gerritsen et al. (2000) found that younger (15- to 18-year-old) respondents and respondents with a higher level of education had a more positive attitude towards English in Dutch TV

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commercials than older (50- to 57-year-old) respondents and respondents with a lower level of education.

Our study has established a difference in the effect of the use of English instead of Dutch in a number of job titles. As was pointed out, a limitation of our experiment was that the job titles studied were not necessarily for positions that the respondents might actually be interested in or suitable for. Further research should explore the impact of the use of English in occupational titles for jobs that can be assumed to be directly relevant to respondents' career interests. In addition, future studies should not only include young and highly educated respondents, but also older and less highly educated target groups. It would also be interesting to examine whether respondents in different countries react differently to English in job titles, since experiments testing the effect of English in product ads have shown, for instance, that respondents from Spain in some cases were affected differently by English than were respondents from Germany and the Netherlands (Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt et al., 2007). The results of such future studies may help organizations in their decisions whether or not to use English in job titles, in order to make sure that the job indicated by the occupational title appeals to a particular target group.

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7.5 Experiments: Conclusion and discussion

7.5.1 Summary of findings

The aim of the experimental studies reported in this chapter was to answer three research questions concerning the effect of the use of English in job advertisements on Dutch respondents:

- RQ 6: To what extent are there differences in the effects on Dutch respondents of all-English, partly-English and all-Dutch equivalent job advertisements in terms of *attitude towards the ad* (attractiveness; naturalness), *comprehension* (estimated comprehensibility of the ad; estimated and actual comprehension of the English and Dutch terms used), and *recruiting outcomes* (attitudes towards the organisation advertising the job; attitudes towards the job that is advertised; job pursuit intentions)?
- RQ 7: To what extent are there differences in the effect on Dutch respondents of the use of English or Dutch in job titles from job advertisements aimed at Dutch people in terms of *attitude to the job titles* (attractiveness, naturalness), *comprehensibility of the job title*, and *recruiting outcomes* (attitude to the job referred to by the title: prestige and attractiveness; evaluation of its international nature; evaluation of its gender orientation)?
- RQ 8: To what extent do English words from job titles evoke the same or different associations in Dutch respondents as Dutch translation equivalents?

The answers to these research questions were determined by asking respondents to evaluate all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job advertisements based on job ads from *de Volkskrant* and Monsterboard and by asking them to evaluate job titles taken from Monsterboard.

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In answer to RQ 6, it was found that the use of English had no effect on recruiting outcomes. It also had little effect on attitudes towards the ad, the one exception being that in the *de Volkskrant* job ad experiment the all-English ad was considered more natural than its partly English and all-Dutch counterparts. A few effects were found for comprehension. The actual and estimated comprehension of English terms in the partly English *de Volkskrant* ad was worse than of their Dutch equivalents in the all-Dutch ad, while the estimated comprehension of the English terms in the completely English Monsterboard job ad was higher than that of their Dutch equivalents in the completely Dutch version.

With respect to RQ 7, the use of English was found to result in a number of differences in attitudes towards the job title (which included evaluations of their comprehensibility) and in recruiting outcomes. Respondents' attitudes to most of the English job titles investigated were less positive than attitudes to their Dutch equivalents. However, the results for recruiting outcomes showed that the English job titles were on the whole evaluated more positively.

As far as RQ 8 is concerned, no differences were found between the English and Dutch job titles in the total number of associations, nor in the number of positive, neutral and negative associations.

It can be concluded that the use of English in job advertising had some limited effects. These effects were hardly found for entire job ads, but mainly for job titles, and not even for all job titles.

7.5.2 Conclusions about the theoretical model of the role of English in job ads in the Netherlands

The theoretical model of the role of English in job advertisements, as set out in Chapter 1.3.6, predicted that the use of English as opposed to Dutch would have both symbolic effects and non-symbolic effects. Symbolic effects were defined as having to do with suggesting qualities or characteristics that were not objectively observable. The experiments in the current chapter tested the symbolic effects relating to the following entities: the organisation with the vacancy, the position advertised and the text of the advertisement (see Table 7.1). Non-symbolic effects referred to aspects that would be objectively observable in the advertisement or the real world outside the

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advertisement. As was also indicated in Table 7.1, the experiments in the current chapter tested the non-symbolic effect of the use of English or Dutch on the comprehensibility of the advertisement and of individual words and phrases.

There was a difference in the number of **symbolic** effects found in the experiments involving complete job ads versus the experiments involving job titles. The experiments reported in the three studies in this chapter showed that the use of English or Dutch in all-English, partly English and all-Dutch ads had only one symbolic effect, on attitude towards the *message*. The all-English ad in the *de Volkskrant* job ad experiment was considered more natural than its partly English and all-Dutch counterparts. As was pointed out in Section 7.2.4, respondents may have been less critical about the all-English ad than about the other versions of the ad for two reasons. Firstly, the cognitive processing effort involved may have been greater for the all-English ad than for the ads completely or largely in their native language. This might have meant that they had fewer cognitive resources left to pay attention to the naturalness of the ad. Another possible explanation is that respondents had different expectations about the conventions regarding ads which are not in their native language. These expectations may have been less stringent, resulting in more positive evaluations of the naturalness of the ad.

In job titles, the use of English had a number of symbolic effects. These related to two of the elements identified in the model in Chapter 1.3.6: attitudes towards the *message*, i.e. the job title itself, and attitudes towards the *job* covered by the title. Behavioural intentions, i.e. job pursuit intentions, were not found to differ between all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job ads. As was explained in Chapter 4.4, job pursuit intentions were not investigated in the experiment involving job titles, because such intentions would not normally be based on the job title alone.

As was suggested in the conclusion to the job title experiment (Section 7.4.4), a possible explanation for the relative lack of symbolic effects for entire job advertisements compared to job titles is that in entire job ads any effect that English may have is neutralized by the amount of information the ad provides on the organisation and the position advertised.

Another possible explanation for the relative lack of symbolic effects of the use of English may be that English is commonly used in Dutch job

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advertising, as has been shown by the corpus analyses reported in Chapter 6, and also in product advertising (Gerritsen et al., 2000; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van Hooft et al., 2007). This may make Dutch people view the use of English as “normal”.

It may also be that not all instances of the use of English, even though they have Dutch equivalents, have a symbolic effect. It has been pointed out in the literature that there may be several reasons for the use of English in job advertising and product advertising, and symbolic reasons are only one possible category (see the discussion of symbolic and non-symbolic reasons in Chapters 1.3, 3.2 and 3.3). Similarly, the interviews reported in Chapter 5.3.3 revealed that makers of job ads gave both symbolic and non-symbolic reasons for using English in the job advertisements they had published in Dutch newspapers. The interviews showed that symbolic reasons, such as making the advertisement sound better and more attractive, indicating higher status and conveying internationality, were only *some* of the reasons given for the use of English by only *some* of the interviewees.

Unlike in the experiments reported in the current chapter, symbolic effects for the use of English instead of the respondents' first language were found in experiments involving product advertising conducted among Hispanic Americans (Koslow, Shamdasani, & Touchstone, 1994; Luna & Peracchio, 2005a, 2005b; Luna, Peracchio, & De Juan, 2003), Korean Americans (Dubish, 2001) and Hong Kong Chinese (Toffoli & Laroche, 2002). Differences in actual behaviour as a result of the use of Welsh, standard English and Welsh-accented English were found in an experiment among English-speaking Welsh people (Bourhis & Giles, 1976). (For a more detailed discussion of these experiments, see Chapter 1.3.2.) A possible explanation for the differences between these experiments and those in the current chapter is that the attitudes of Dutch people to English may be less strong than the attitudes to English of Hispanic Americans, Korean Americans, Hong Kong Chinese, and bilingual Welsh speakers. This is because for native inhabitants of the Netherlands English is not usually a language of communication in addition to their first language, unlike for the other speaker groups. English may be seen by Dutch people as less of a competitor to their first language than is the case for English for the other speaker groups. While English was not found to have symbolic effects in the current experiments, symbolic effects were found for the use of French in

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product advertising on Dutch and American respondents (Hornikx & Starren, 2006; Petrof, 1990). The cause of this difference may be that French is less commonly used than English in the Netherlands and that French in non-Francophone countries is more strongly associated with France and its culture than English in EFL countries is associated with a particular country such as Great Britain or the United States (for the latter observation, see Cheshire & Moser, 1994, p. 462; Hornikx & Starren, 2006, p. 134; Kelly-Holmes, 2000, p. 76; Kelly-Holmes, 2005, pp. 67-77; Martin, 2006, p. 166; Piller, 2001, p. 164; Piller, 2003, p. 175, see Chapter 1.3.2).

The experiments also showed some **non-symbolic** effects of the use of English. The *de Volkskrant* job ad experiment revealed that the actual and estimated comprehension of English terms in partly English ads was worse than of their Dutch equivalents in all-Dutch ads. In the Monsterboard job ad experiment, the respondents' own estimation of their understanding of the English words and phrases in the completely English job ad was higher than that of their Dutch equivalents in the completely Dutch version, but there were no differences in actual understanding. The job title experiment indicated that the comprehensibility of English job titles was evaluated more negatively than that of their Dutch equivalents (although comprehensibility was not reported separately but as part of attitude towards the job title).

The findings that English was understood less well in the *de Volkskrant* job ad experiment, and that English was evaluated as more difficult in both the *de Volkskrant* job ad experiment and the job title experiment, are in agreement with the Revised Hierarchical Model of the way words in different languages are stored in the brain (e.g. Dufour & Kroll, 1995; Kroll & De Groot, 1997; Luna & Peracchio, 1999, pp. 306-307; 2002b, pp. 574-576; see Chapter 1.3.4). There are stronger links between word forms and underlying concepts in people's first language than in their second language, and people know more words in their first language than in their second language.

The differences in the actual and estimated comprehension of English terms and their Dutch counterparts between the job ads in the *de Volkskrant* job ad experiment and the Monsterboard job experiment may be explained by differences in the difficulty of the specific words and phrases which the participants in the two experiments were asked to evaluate and paraphrase.

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It is hard to explain the findings from the Monsterboard job ad experiment showing that the estimated comprehension of the English words and phrases in the completely English job ad was higher than that of their Dutch equivalents in the completely Dutch version. It may be that the respondents who evaluated the completely English ad felt the English words and phrases whose comprehensibility they assessed made sense in the English context, which may have led to them assessing these words and phrases as not very difficult. It may also be that the respondents overestimated their comprehension of English, in line with the findings of earlier studies of Dutch respondents' comprehension of English (Gerritsen et al., 2000; Van Onna & Jansen, 2006c). However, this does not explain why the respondents' estimated comprehension of Dutch words and phrases in the Monsterboard experiment was lower.

7.5.3 The contribution of the current experimental studies to research into English in job advertising and product advertising in EFL countries

The three experimental studies reported in this chapter have made a number of contributions to insights into the effects of English in job advertising in EFL countries. The two studies of English in full job ads have shown that there is no empirical support for claims made in the literature about the symbolic effects English supposedly has in such ads. English was not found to have a prestige-enhancing effect when used in full job ads, contrary to what is claimed on the basis of incidental observations (Larson, 1990). These two studies also show that the use of English did not invariably result in comprehension problems, in contrast to what was claimed by some writers, again on the basis of incidental observations (Janssen, 2006; Kuiper, 2007; Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2003).

These experimental findings confirm the findings of the only other experimental study of the effect of English in Dutch job ads (Renkema et al., 2001), which did not find any differences between attitudes towards the advertisement, the organisation and the ad in partly English ads and their fully Dutch equivalents, except for the evaluations of the naturalness of the ads. In addition, the studies in this chapter have shown that this is also the case for all-English job ads, which had not been studied before. Furthermore,

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one experiment demonstrated that the use of English sometimes led to worse comprehension than if Dutch equivalents were used, while the other experiment showed that comprehension was not affected. No previous study had experimentally investigated the effect of the use of English or Dutch in job ads on comprehension.

The insights into the effect of English versus Dutch in entire job ads on attitudes to the ad and recruiting outcomes yielded by these two experimental studies are in line with the findings of the few earlier experimental studies that compared the effect of English and Dutch on websites and in product advertisements on Dutch respondents. The relative lack of effects on text evaluation, and the complete lack of effects on attitudes towards the organisation and the job, and on job pursuit intentions are in accordance with Dasselaar et al.'s (2005) findings that the use of English or Dutch on websites had no effects on the attractiveness of the text, on product image and on intention to use the product. They are also similar to the findings in Smakman et al. (2009) that the use of English or Dutch in radio commercials had mixed effects on respondents' evaluations of the attractiveness of the commercials (for one of the two commercials studied, the partly English version was considered more attractive than its all-Dutch counterpart, and for the other commercial, the all-Dutch version was considered more attractive), no effects on their evaluations of the intelligibility of the commercials, no effects on their evaluations of company image and of product image, and limited effects on purchasing intentions (these were higher for the all-Dutch version of one of the commercials than for its partly English equivalent, while for the other commercial there were no differences between the versions). Likewise, Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt et al. (2007) found that for one of the four print-medium product ads that respondents evaluated their attitude towards the language used in the ad was better for the English version than for the Dutch version, but there were no differences in attitudes towards the language used for the other three ads. As for product image, similarly, for one ad the product was considered more modern than in the Dutch version, while for the other three ads there were no differences in evaluated modernity and for none of the four ads were there differences in how expensive the products were considered to be.

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The findings regarding comprehension in the *de Volkskrant* job ad experiment are in line with those for websites reported in Dasselaar et al. (2005). Where the *de Volkskrant* job ad experiment showed that the actual and estimated comprehension of English terms in partly English ads was worse than of their Dutch equivalents in all-Dutch ads, Dasselaar et al. found that actual comprehension of English terms was worse than that of Dutch equivalents for the two websites they studied, and estimated comprehension of English terms was worse than that of Dutch terms for one of these two websites. These findings are different from those for radio commercials reported in Smakman et al. (2009). While they did not study estimated comprehension, they found no significant differences in actual comprehension between English words and phrases and their Dutch counterparts. The findings regarding comprehension cannot be compared to those in Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt et al. (2007), since they only investigated respondents' comprehension of English phrases (and not of equivalent Dutch phrases).

While there had been one earlier experimental study of the effect of English in entire job ads, the study into the effect of English versus Dutch in job titles was the first of its kind to investigate experimentally the effect of the use of English versus the first language of respondents in EFL countries. For at least some job titles, the findings of this study confirm a number of claims made in the literature while disproving others. The study demonstrated that for the respondents the use of English job titles increased the prestige of the jobs they referred to and made the jobs more attractive, in line with the incidental observations in the literature (De Koning, 1989; Larson, 1990; Peereboom, 1991; Seitz, 2008; Tiggeler & Doeve, n.d., p. 67; Van der Sijs, 1996, p. 26; Watts, 2002). It also showed that, for a number of titles, the respondents shared some writers' negative evaluations of English job titles as opposed to job titles in the first language of the country where the job advertisements are published (Peereboom, 1991; Taavitsainen & Pahta, 2003). This is in line with the findings of a survey which showed that German respondents did not always find English job titles more attractive than their German equivalents (Ulrich, Eberhard, & Krewerth, 2004). The experiment also confirmed claims from the literature about the international image suggested by an English job title (Tiggeler & Doeve, n.d., pp. 21-22). In one respect, the experiment showed that views from the literature were

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not shared by the respondents. Unlike what was suggested in the literature (De Caluwe & Van Santen, 2001, pp. 18, 81; Gerritsen, 2001, p. 108; Gerritsen, 2002, p. 103), English job titles were not considered more gender-neutral but more masculine than their Dutch counterparts.

Another contribution made by the job title experiment was that it studied the associations evoked by English phrases as compared to their Dutch equivalents. While experimental studies of differences in associations with words in different languages had been carried out with isolated words (e.g. Kolars, 1963; Taylor, 1976; Van Hell & De Groot, 1998) and with product advertisements (Hornikx et al. 2007; Luna, 1999; Luna & Peracchio, 2005a, 2005b; Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008; Luna et al., 2003; Noriega & Blair, 2008), no such study had been done in relation to job advertisements. Unlike the other studies, the current experiment found no differences in associations between words and phrases in different languages. As was suggested in the discussion of this finding in the job title experiment (Section 7.4.3), the absence of differences in associations between Dutch and English job titles may be explained by the fact that such job titles were possibly encountered and learned in similar recruiting contexts (cf. Luna & Peracchio, 2002a, p. 260).

The discrepancy between the findings of the experiments reported in this chapter and the claims made in the literature about the effects of English in job ads contributes to the discussion about the “spokesman problem” regarding attitudes towards English. The current experiments showed that the claims in the literature were not in line with the respondents’ evaluations of entire job ads in the *de Volkskrant* and Monsterboard experiments and corresponded with the evaluations of only a *number* of job titles in the job title experiment. Like other studies in the Netherlands and France (De Bot & Weltens, 1997, pp. 145-147; Flaitz, 1988, p. 197, as discussed in Chapters 3.4 and 7.4.4; see also Oakes, 2001, p. 218), the current experiments therefore show that the views of elite groups - academics and opinion leaders, such as writers - were different from the views of ordinary language users.

7.5.4 Limitations and suggestions for further research

A limitation of the *de Volkskrant* and Monsterboard job ad experiments was that each of the experiments tested the effect of English versus Dutch in versions of only one job advertisement. Meuffels and Van den Bergh (2005) note that the findings of experiments involving versions of only one text may not be used to make generalised statements. In the studies described in the current chapter, this problem was partly addressed by testing the effects of three versions of two job advertisements in separate experiments. Moreover, the two job advertisements in these experiments represented different media (print media and the Internet) and different organisations and positions. At the very least, the findings of these two experiments can be used to refute the claims in the literature that English always has positive effects in terms of image and negative effects in terms of attitude towards the ad and of comprehension. The experiments had sufficient power to detect a large effect if such an effect existed (see Sections 7.2.2 and 7.3.2). It could be that the effects of English are more subtle, and the sample used in the experiments was not large enough to detect medium or small effects. The question is, however, whether detecting small effects in particular would be relevant. The fact that the findings of the two separate experiments were similar suggests that English in job ads for highly educated Dutch people have hardly any symbolic effects in terms of attitudes towards the ad and recruiting outcomes and only limited non-symbolic effects in terms of comprehension. This suggestion is supported by the fact that these findings are in line with the findings of the only earlier experimental study into the effects of English versus Dutch in job advertisements regarding attitude towards the ad, the job and the organisation (Renkema et al., 2001). While the findings of these different studies all seem to point in the same direction, further experiments with ads for different positions and different organisations, containing different English words and phrases, are necessary to determine to what extent conclusions about the effects of English in job ads on Dutch respondents can be generalised further.

A second limitation of the *de Volkskrant* and Monsterboard job ad experiments is that they did not test all possible relevant symbolic effects that English may have according to published comments about English in job ads reported in Chapter 3 and according to the interviews with makers

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of job ads in the Netherlands reported in Chapter 5. One such effect is that English creates an international image. Moore and Varantola (2005, p. 138) suggest that English terms in Finnish job ads are used for “global image building”, and Müller-Thurau (1999, as cited in Seitz, 2008, p. 14) comments that English words in German job ads indicate that the organisation is international (see Chapter 3.2.3). Similarly, makers of all-English job ads remarked that an all-English ad indicated the international nature of the organisation (see Chapter 5.3.3.1). While the job title experiment in Section 7.4 tested the effect of the use of English versus Dutch on respondents’ views of the international nature of the job, this effect was not investigated in the experiments involving all-English, partly-English and all-Dutch job ads. Another symbolic effect mentioned in the literature (Hilgendorf, 1996, p. 11; Hilgendorf & Martin, 2001, pp. 223-225; Watts, 2002, p. 117) and in the interviews which was not tested in the experiments is that an all-English job advertisement indicates the importance of English language skills on the part of applicants (see Chapters 3.2.7 and 5.3.3.1). A third symbolic effect mentioned in the literature (Watts, 2002, p. 117) and in the interviews which was not tested experimentally is that an all-English job advertisement indicates that English is the language of communication in the organisation (see Chapters 3.2.8 and 5.3.3.1). Future experiments could explore these claims by investigating the effect of the all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job ads on respondents’ evaluation of the international nature of the job and of the organisation, and on their views of the importance of English language skills required for the position and on their views of the role English plays in communication in the organisation.

The experiment involving job titles also had a number of limitations. First of all, respondents’ actual comprehension of the English and Dutch job titles was not tested. This could have been done by asking the respondents to describe the meaning of the job titles, similar to the way actual comprehension was tested in the two experiments involving complete job ads, or by asking them to describe what the position involved. However, it was decided not to include such a task because of time constraints.

A second limitation of the job title experiment was that estimated comprehension was not reported separately, unlike in the case of the two experiments involving complete job ads, but as part of attitude towards the job title. This means that it was not possible to make definite

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pronouncements about the effect of the use of English or Dutch on the comprehensibility of job titles, but only about comprehensibility in combination with other aspects of attitudes towards the job title. In future experiments, the actual comprehension of English and Dutch job titles should be tested, and their estimated comprehension should be reported separately.

As mentioned in Section 7.4.4, a third limitation of the job title experiment was that the job titles the respondents were asked to evaluate were not necessarily for positions that they might actually be interested in or suitable for, since they were majoring in a variety of subjects, as was pointed out in the conclusion to this experiment. While the experiment therefore does not provide insights into the effects of the use of English instead of Dutch in job titles on potential applicants in all cases, it does yield insights into how the use of English or Dutch job titles affects people who might come across these titles in job ads while they are searching for job ads that they are actually interested in. These effects are also of interest for organisations placing job ads in view of what Barber (1998, p. 145) has called the “spillover effects” of such ads. Attitudes to job ads and the information they contain may not just influence job seekers but also readers who are potential consumers and investors in their purchasing and investment decisions regarding the organisation and the products and services it offers. Two suggestions for further research follow from this. As was pointed out in the conclusion to the job title experiment, future experiments should examine the effects of English versus Dutch job titles on respondents who are more likely to be potential applicants. In order to determine spillover effects, future experiments on the effect of the English in job ads should include questions about respondents’ intentions to use the organisations’ goods or services, their intentions to invest money in the organisations, and their intentions to apply for jobs offered by the organisations other than those described in the job ads they evaluate.

A limitation of the generalisability of all three experiments reported in this chapter is that the respondents were students in higher education. Since Gerritsen et al. (2000) showed that English TV commercials were evaluated differently by respondents with different levels of education, it is necessary to conduct experiments to determine the effect of English versus Dutch in job ads on respondents with lower levels of education. In the light

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of a second-order meta-analysis of social science research which showed that the responses of college students in a number of respects differed from non-student subjects (Peterson, 2001), it is also necessary to conduct such experiments among non-students.

In the discussion earlier in this section of the implications of the findings of the three experiments for the theoretical model of the use of English in job advertisements, it was suggested that a possible explanation for the lack of symbolic effects found was that not all English words and phrases may have such symbolic effects. In future experiments, the English words and phrases used could be limited to those that Dutch makers of job ads expect to have symbolic effects. While there might be a discrepancy between the views of makers of job ad and the groups at which these ads are targeted, this would make sure that the English used was motivated by symbolic reasons.

In the discussion earlier in this section of the implications of the findings of the experiments for the theoretical model, it was also suggested that the lack of symbolic effects of the use of English in product ads on Dutch respondents compared to American Hispanic, American Korean and Hong Kong Chinese respondents might be due to Dutch respondents having less strong attitudes to English than respondents in contexts where, in addition to their first language, English is a language of communication. To examine the validity of this suggestion, future studies should, therefore, investigate the effects of English versus a first language in job ads on respondents for whom English is a second language (such as Hispanics in the USA) or a foreign language (like in the Netherlands). Such experiments should also explicitly investigate respondents' attitudes to English and their first language in general.

Chapter 8 - The role of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands: Conclusion and discussion

This study empirically investigated the role of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands from three perspectives identified in the model in Figure 1.4 (Chapter 1.3.6): the perspective of the *sender* of the advertising message through interviews with Dutch job ad makers (Chapter 5), the perspective of the job ad *message* through corpus analyses of job advertisements published in the Dutch national paper *de Volkskrant* and on the Dutch job site Monsterboard (Chapter 6), and the perspective of the *receiver* of the message through experiments involving Dutch respondents (Chapter 7). The findings of these empirical studies were also related to an aspect of the *context* of these three components: the role of English in the Netherlands outside the domain of job advertising (e.g. the frequency with which English is used in Dutch society in general and in particular sectors of the economy, and attitudes to English in general and product advertising; see Chapter 1.4). The main findings of the studies are summarised in Section 8.1. For ease of reference, Figure 1.4 is reproduced here.

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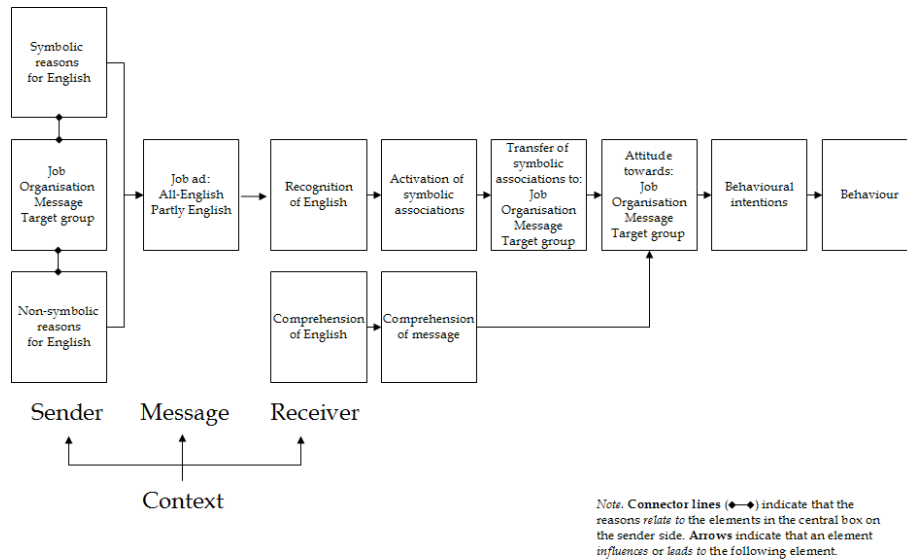


Figure 1.4. A model of the role of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands from sender to receiver.

The findings of the studies have a number of implications for the model described in Chapter 1.3.6. They both offer support for the model (discussed in Section 8.2) and suggest adaptations to the model (discussed in Section 8.3). Section 8.4 summarises the contributions the current study has made to existing insights on the use and effects of English in job ads in the Netherlands, to the model, and to job ad research. Section 8.5 discusses the practical implications of the findings for makers of job advertisements. Sections 8.3 to 8.5 also present suggestions for further research arising from the model, to supplement the suggestions made in the previous chapters (Chapters 5.4.7, 6.2.4, 6.3.4, 6.4.4, 7.2.4, 7.3.4, 7.4.4, 7.5.4). The implications of the findings for the model are depicted visually in Figure 8.1 (Section 8.3.6, p. 403).

8.1 Summary of main findings

This section will present the research questions and the main findings for the senders' perspective on English and Dutch in their job ad messages (Section 8.1.1), the extent to which English is used in job ad messages and factors that determine this (Section 8.1.2), and the effect of the use of English on

receivers of job ad messages (Section 8.1.3). Finally, it will present conclusions from these findings about the influence of context (Section 8.1.4).

8.1.1 The senders' perspective on English and Dutch in their job ad messages (Chapter 5)

RQ 1: To what extent do makers of job ads consciously decide to use English or Dutch in the ads they place?

Most of the job ad makers interviewed said their decision to place an all-English, partly English or all-Dutch job advertisement had been a conscious one. The respondents who stated that their decision had not been a conscious one motivated their language use in retrospect by referring to circumstances that led to their decision, e.g. the use of English or Dutch terms in their sector.

RQ 2: How do makers of job ads view the comprehensibility of the English or Dutch they use, and to what extent do they test this?

Most of the job ad makers interviewed remarked that the all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job advertisements they had placed would pose no comprehension problems for these ads' target groups. However, the majority of the respondents did not test whether the target group understood the ads they had placed.

RQ 3: What reasons do job ad makers give for using or not using English in job ads, and how do these reasons relate to the model described in Chapter 1.3?

RQ 3a: To what extent do job ad makers give symbolic reasons for using or not using English?

RQ 3b: To what extent do job ad makers give non-symbolic reasons for using or not using English?

The reasons given by the job ad makers for placing an all-English, partly English, and all-Dutch advertisement were *both symbolic and non-symbolic*.

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Symbolic reasons were defined as reasons relating to qualities that were neither explicitly stated nor objectively observable in the ad or in the world outside the advertisements. Non-symbolic reasons were defined as reasons relating to aspects that were objectively observable in the advertisements or in the world outside the advertisements. A majority of interviewees mentioned non-symbolic reasons more often than symbolic reasons.

RQ 3c: To which of the entities described in the model (sender, message, receiver, context) do the symbolic reasons given by the job ad makers relate?

RQ 3d: To which of the entities described in the model (sender, message, receiver, context) do the non-symbolic reasons given by the job ad makers relate?

The symbolic and non-symbolic reasons given by the job ad makers for placing an all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job advertisement related to all the entities identified in the model: the organisation with the vacancy (*sender*); the job advertised; the text of the advertisement as a whole, and the words included in it (*message*); the ad's target group (*receiver*); the sector to which the organisation belonged and Dutch society (*context*). However, there were differences between the makers of all-English, partly English and all-Dutch job ads in the entities they mentioned. Unlike the other two types, the all-English ads were not motivated by symbolic reasons at word level or by non-symbolic reasons at text level. The partly English ads were different from the other two types in that the English in them was motivated by text-related symbolic reasons and by non-symbolic reasons relating to Dutch society, and in that it was not motivated by organisation- or target-group-related symbolic reasons. Only the language use in all-Dutch ads was motivated by non-symbolic reasons relating to the nature of the job.

8.1.2 The extent to which English is used in job ad messages and factors that determine this (Chapter 6)

RQ 4: To what extent is English used in job advertisements in the Netherlands?

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A corpus analysis of 120 job ads from *de Volkskrant* and from Monsterboard revealed the following about the extent to which English is used. It was found that 40% of the job ads in *de Volkskrant* and 87.5% of the job ads on Monsterboard contained English. The percentage of completely English ads was 0.8% and 4%, respectively. The percentage of partly English ads was 39% in *de Volkskrant* and 83% on Monsterboard. The average percentage of English words in partly English ads was 1.8% in *de Volkskrant* and 17.9% on Monsterboard.

RQ 5: What factors can be shown to determine the extent to which English is used in job advertisements in the Netherlands?

RQ 5a: To what extent does the proportion of English used in job advertisements depend on the multinational as opposed to domestic status of the organisations advertising the vacancy?

In both the *de Volkskrant* and the Monsterboard corpus, the extent to which English was used was greater in job ads placed by multinational organisations than by domestic organisations.

RQ 5b: To what extent does the proportion of English used in job advertisements depend on the economic sector of the organisation with the job vacancy?

There was no difference in the extent to which English was used in different sectors in the *de Volkskrant* corpus. In the Monsterboard corpus, English was used more extensively in advertisements from the Transport, Storage and Communications sector and from the Commercial Services sector than from the Financial Institutions sector.

RQ 5c: To what extent does the proportion of English used in job advertisements depend on the educational level required for the position that is advertised?

In the *de Volkskrant* ads, there was no difference in the extent to which English was used between different job levels. In advertisements from

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Monsterboard, English was used more for higher and academic positions than for medium-level positions.

RQ 5d: To what extent are there differences in the proportion of English used in the various parts of partly English job advertisements?

In both the *de Volkskrant* corpus and the Monsterboard corpus, the proportion of English words was higher in job titles than in other parts of the ads.

RQ 5e: What proportion of English words used in job advertisements have Dutch translation equivalents?

A majority of the English words in both the *de Volkskrant* and the Monsterboard corpus were found to have Dutch translation equivalents.

RQ 5f: What proportion of English words used in job advertisements are expected to be relatively easy to understand for Dutch readers with a basic knowledge of English, because they have Dutch cognates and/or are among the most frequent words in the English language?

The majority of English words in both the *de Volkskrant* corpus and the Monsterboard corpus were potentially relatively easy to understand for Dutch readers with a basic knowledge of English, because they had Dutch cognates and/or were among the most frequent words in the English language.

8.1.3 The effect of the use of English on receivers of job ad messages (Chapter 7)

RQ 6: To what extent are there differences in the effects on Dutch respondents of all-English, partly-English and all-Dutch equivalent job advertisements in terms of *attitude towards the ad* (attractiveness; naturalness), *comprehension* (estimated comprehensibility of the ad; estimated and actual comprehension of the English and Dutch terms

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used), and *recruiting outcomes* (attitudes towards the organisation advertising the job; attitudes towards the job that is advertised; job pursuit intentions)?

It was found that the use of English had little effect on *attitudes towards the ad*, the one exception being that in the *de Volkskrant* job ad experiment the all-English ad was considered more natural than its partly English and all-Dutch counterparts. In addition, a few effects were found for *comprehension*. The actual and estimated comprehension of English terms in the partly English *de Volkskrant* ad was worse than that of their Dutch equivalents in the all-Dutch ad, while the estimated comprehension of the English terms in the completely English Monsterboard job ad was higher than that of their Dutch equivalents in the completely Dutch version. Finally, the use of English was found to have no effect on *recruiting outcomes*.

RQ 7: To what extent are there differences in the effect on Dutch respondents of the use of English or Dutch in job titles from job advertisements aimed at Dutch people in terms of *attitude to the job titles* (attractiveness, naturalness), *comprehensibility*, and *recruiting outcomes* (attitude to the job referred to by the title: prestige and attractiveness; evaluation of its international nature; evaluation of its gender orientation)?

Respondents' *attitudes* to most of the English job titles investigated (which included evaluations of comprehensibility) were less positive than attitudes to their Dutch equivalents. However, the results for *recruiting outcomes* showed that some jobs with English job titles were evaluated more positively. They were considered more attractive and more prestigious, were thought to have higher salaries, and were also thought to be more international than jobs with equivalent Dutch job titles. In most cases, jobs with English titles were seen as more male than their Dutch equivalents.

RQ 8: To what extent do English words from job titles evoke the same or different associations in Dutch respondents as Dutch translation equivalents?

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No differences were found between the English and Dutch job titles in the total number of associations, nor in the number of positive, neutral and negative associations. There were also no differences between the number of associations that were common to English and Dutch equivalent job titles and the number of associations that were unique to job titles in each of the two languages.

8.1.4 The influence of context

The empirical studies revealed the following about the influence of context on what job ad makers say about their language use and on the extent to which English is used in job ads. The interviews in Chapter 5 show that makers of job ads indicated that the sector in which the organisation operates and the general use of English in Dutch society were factors that determined their use of English. Similarly, the corpus analyses in Chapter 6 indicate that the differences in the proportion with which English was used in the ads could be related to the sectors in which the organisations that had placed the ads were active.

8.2 Findings that support the model

The model in Chapter 1.3.6 describes the use and effects of English in job ads in the Netherlands from the perspective of sender, message, receiver and context. It indicates that *senders* of job ad messages in the Netherlands have both symbolic and non-symbolic reasons for using or avoiding English. It suggests that these reasons influence the extent to which English was used in the job ad *messages* themselves. Furthermore, it specifies that the use of English in these messages affects the *receivers* of these messages both symbolically (in their attitudes to the organisation and to the job, and in their application intentions and behaviour) and non-symbolically (in their understanding of the job ad messages). It also states that *context* affects sender, message and receiver. Finally, the model indicates that there are *links* between the four components. The empirical studies provide support for the validity of a large part of the model, although not all aspects were investigated. This will first be shown for each of the separate components

(Sections 8.2.1 - 8.2.4) and then for the links between the components (Section 8.2.5).

The criteria used for deciding that findings supported the model were the following. With regard to the interview study reported in Chapter 5, any remark by makers of job ads that indicated the relevance of an element of the model was taken to offer support for the model in respect to this element on the sender side. Regarding the corpus analyses reported in Chapter 6, any statistically significant finding concerning the effect of a non-symbolic factor on the extent to which English was used was taken to support the relevance to the model of this factor in the message component. Finally, with regard to the experiments reported in Chapter 7, any statistically significant difference between the effects of the use of English and Dutch on an element was taken to corroborate the relevance of this element on the receiver side.

8.2.1 Sender

The interviews reported in Chapter 5 confirmed that senders of advertising messages in the Netherlands indeed had both symbolic and non-symbolic reasons for using English or Dutch, as described in the model. These reasons were found to relate to all the elements - *job, organisation, message, target group* - identified in the model on the sender side, as well as to the *context* component, which the model depicts as influencing the sender. This means that these elements are retained in the new model, shown in Figure 8.1 in Section 8.3.6.

8.2.2 Message

The corpus findings in Chapter 6 show that all-English and partly English job advertisements occurred in the Netherlands, as was indicated in the model in Chapter 1.3.6. This means that a division into an all-English job ad and a partly English job ad in the message component can be retained in the new model shown in Figure 8.1.

In addition, the corpus analyses indicated that the elements *job, organisation, message, target group* and *context* influence the use of English

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in job ads, by showing that non-symbolic factors relating to these elements determine the extent to which English is used (symbolic factors were not investigated). The factor pertaining to both *job* and *target group* was the educational level required for the job that is advertised. The factor concerning *organisation* was its multinational or domestic status. The factors regarding *message* were the job ad element concerned, and the level of difficulty of the English words in the ad. Finally, the factor relating to *context* was the sector to which the organisation belonged. As was remarked in the discussion of the model in Chapter 1.3.6, the influence of factors on the use of English in the message is not direct but always through the makers of the job ad. This means that the elements organisation, message, target group and context should be retained on the sender side of the new model in Figure 8.1 with the arrow pointing to message, to indicate their influence on the use of English in the job ad message.

8.2.3 Receiver

The job title experiment reported in Chapter 7 reveals that the use of English in job titles had symbolic effects on the way receivers of these messages perceived the job title *message* (their attitudes to the job title) and the *job* referred to (attractiveness, prestige, salary, internationality). This is consistent with the fourth upper box on the receiver side of the model showing that the use of English can affect attitudes to the job and the message. The experiment involving job ads from *de Volkskrant* showed one symbolic effect, i.e. on attitude towards the naturalness of the message. Again this can be taken to confirm that the use of English can affect attitudes to the job ad message. Together, these findings mean that attitude to the job and attitude to the message should therefore be retained in the fourth box on the receiver side of the new model in Figure 8.1.

The experiments involving full job ads from both *de Volkskrant* and Monsterboard also show that the use of English influenced comprehension of the words and phrases in the ads. This means that the “comprehension of English” box should be retained on the receiver side of the new model in Figure 8.1.

8.2.4 Context

In line with what the model in Chapter 1.3.6 indicates, the empirical studies provide some evidence that context influences the use of English by the *senders* of job advertising messages and the extent of the use of English in the *messages* themselves (see Section 8.1.4). The interviews with job ad makers reported in Chapter 5 revealed that context factors (i.e. the use of English in specific sectors and in the Netherlands in general) were reasons for them to use English in the ads they made. The corpus analyses in Chapter 6 similarly showed that context influenced the use of English in job ads in the sense that the specific sectors in which organisations operate influenced the extent to which English is used. Together, these findings mean that the arrows from context to sender and from context to message can be retained in the new model in Figure 8.1.

8.2.5 Links between components

The empirical studies provide evidence for links between the following components of the model: sender and message; sender and receiver; message and receiver; context and sender; context and message. Each of these will be discussed below.

Sender and message

The arrow from the sender side to the message component in the model indicates that the reasons job ad makers have for using English manifest themselves in the way English is used in job ad messages. The corpus analyses in Chapter 6 show that a number of the reasons mentioned by job ad makers in the interviews in Chapter 5 indeed influenced the extent to which English was used in job ads. Because symbolic reasons cannot be investigated through corpus analyses, the reasons studied only concerned non-symbolic factors. There were three factors that were both mentioned in the interviews as reasons for using English and that were shown in the corpus analyses to influence the extent to which English was used in job ads: the multinational status of the organisation (factor relating to organisation);

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the sector in which the organisation operates (factor relating to context); and the comprehensibility of the English terms used (factor relating to aspects of the message). Thus, the corpus analyses provide evidence that the arrow from the central box on the sender side to the message component should be retained as far as the elements organisation and message are concerned. They also indicate that the arrow from context to message should be retained.

Sender and receiver

The model indicates that senders of job ad messages use English because they believe it will influence the receivers of the message in certain ways. This is indicated by the arrow from sender to message and subsequently to receiver. The findings of the experiments in Chapter 7 provide some evidence that the use of English (or Dutch) indeed influenced receivers of job ad messages in line with what the senders of such messages intend to achieve, as revealed by the interviews reported in Chapter 5. The experiment involving job ads from *de Volkskrant* showed that the actual and estimated comprehension of English terms used in the partly English ad was worse than that of their Dutch equivalents in the all-Dutch ad. This is in agreement with remarks by makers of all-Dutch job ads that Dutch terms would be more comprehensible than English equivalents. The experiment involving job titles revealed that respondents' attitudes to a number of jobs with English titles were more positive than to jobs with equivalent Dutch titles. This is in line with the remarks made by interviewees that a position with an English title had more status and was more modern than a job with an equivalent Dutch title (Chapter 5.3.3.2 and Chapter 5.3.3.3). These findings mean that the arrow from sender to message and subsequently to receiver should be retained.

Message and receiver

The findings from the corpus analyses and the experiments provide some support for the link in the model between the job ad message and the receiver of the message. The majority of English words in the corpus

analyses were likely to be relatively easy to understand for Dutch readers, since they had Dutch cognates and were among the most frequent words in the English language. In line with this, the Monsterboard job ad experiment showed that there were no differences in comprehension of English terms in the partly English ad and their Dutch equivalents in the all-Dutch ad. This means that the arrow from message to receiver can be retained in the new model in Figure 8.1.

Context and sender

As was pointed out in Section 8.2.4, the interviews showed that context influenced the senders of job ad messages, in line with what is indicated in the model. The job ad makers remarked that they used English because English is used widely in the Netherlands in general and the sectors in which their organisations operate. These findings mean that the arrow from context to sender can be retained in the new model in Figure 8.1.

Context and message

The link between context and message was also commented on in Section 8.2.4. The corpus analyses in Chapter 6 revealed that the sectors in which organisations operate influence the extent to which English is used in job ads. It could be argued that the influence of context factors on the use of English in the message is not direct but always through the makers of the job ad, since it is the job ad makers who determine what goes into the message. However, the influence of the context factor sector is directly reflected in the extent to which English is used in the message. This means that the arrow from context to message can be retained in the new model in Figure 8.1.

8.3 Adaptations to the model

The findings of the empirical studies suggest that a number of adaptations need to be made to the model. These adaptations will first be discussed for each of the separate components, sender, message, receiver and context (Sections 8.3.1 - 8.3.4), and then for the links between the components

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(Section 8.3.5). Finally, based on these suggestions for adaptations, a new model of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands will be presented (Figure 8.1 in Section 8.3.6).

8.3.1 Sender

The findings of the interviews with job ad makers regarding the extent to which they consciously used English or Dutch (RQ 1) showed that there were a number of senders of job ad messages who did not use English or Dutch consciously. They nevertheless mentioned reasons that determined their language use. As was pointed out in Chapter 5.4.1, this suggests that a distinction should be added to the model between reasons which play a part in the conscious language use of makers of job ads and those reasons which influence their decisions unconsciously. This is indicated on the sender side of the new model in Figure 8.1 by adding the label (un)conscious to the boxes with symbolic and non-symbolic reasons for English on the sender side.

The interviews revealed that non-symbolic reasons were mentioned more often than symbolic reasons by a majority of job ad makers. As was indicated in Chapter 5.4.3, this suggests that non-symbolic reasons may be more important for senders of job ad messages. In order to capture this, an indication of the relative weight of each type of reason is included on the sender side of the new model in Figure 8.1 by increasing the border thickness of the box containing (un)conscious non-symbolic reasons for using English.

As was mentioned in Chapter 5.4.4, an analysis of the entities referred to in the reasons given by the makers of job ads (RQ 3b) indicated that one of these entities should be adapted. The new model in Figure 8.1 shows that the entity of *message* on the sender side is subdivided into *words* and the *text* of the ad as a whole, as the interviewees referred to these as separate categories. They clearly distinguished between reasons that applied individual words and terms and reasons that applied to the text of the ad as a whole.

As was pointed out in Chapter 5.4.6, the classification of reasons was not made by the job ad makers themselves but by the researcher. This means that it is not certain that senders of job ad messages would also divide

reasons into symbolic and non-symbolic categories and link them to entities in the same way as in the model. A suggestion for further research would be to ask job ad makers to classify the reasons themselves, in order to investigate whether the classification in the model is shared by senders of job ad messages, and thereby to determine whether these aspects of the model are part of their mental model. This will make it possible to establish the validity of the model of the role of English in job ads in the Netherlands from the perspective of the makers of job ads.

8.3.2 Message

The corpus analyses reported in Chapter 6 showed that one of the factors that determined the extent to which English was used is the educational level required for the job. As was observed in Section 8.2.2, this can be used to demonstrate the relevance of both job and target group to the use of English in the job ad message. However, it has not yet been demonstrated that the elements job and target group *separately* influence the use of English. Future research should investigate the influence of each element separately. One obvious avenue for research in this respect is the type of job that is advertised. Certain types of job may entail more English jargon than others. For example, job ads for ICT specialists may contain more English than those for HR specialists, irrespective of the sector in which they work, because ICT is a field in which a great deal of English is used (cf. Van der Sijs, 1996, p. 322; 2005, p. 339).

8.3.3 Receiver

In a number of respects, the findings from the experiments reported in Chapter 7 do not support the model regarding the response to English or Dutch from receivers of job ad messages.

First of all, contrary to what the model suggests, the use of English or Dutch in job titles was not found to evoke different associations. As was pointed out in Chapter 7.4.3, this may be due to the respondents' having encountered English and Dutch job titles at the same stage in their lives, i.e. when they are exploring work-related situations, such as job descriptions,

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job ads and company web sites. Because the situation in which they encounter these English and Dutch terms is therefore similar, their associations are also similar. It may also be that the measure of differences and similarities in associations was in some ways too coarse. It is true that whether associations were unique or shared was investigated for each pair of equivalent Dutch and English job titles *individually*. However, the total number of associations as well as the number of positive, neutral and negative associations were only measured for all Dutch job titles versus all English job titles *combined*. It may therefore be that there were differences between individual job titles in the number of positive, neutral and negative associations. One indication that there were such differences is that for a number of job titles attitudes to the Dutch and English title and the job they covered were different. Since associations were only investigated with job titles, further research should also study associations with English and Dutch in full job ads. In the new model in Figure 8.1, a question mark is added to the box 'activation of symbolic associations' on the receiver side, in order to indicate that no differences in associations were found between English and Dutch job titles in the way they were investigated (i.e. between *groups* of five English and Dutch titles), but that such differences may nevertheless exist between English and Dutch versions of *individual* titles.

Secondly, the experiments involving full job ads showed that the use of English or Dutch did not result in differences in attitudes towards the organisation. It may be that the organisational attitudes investigated in the experiments were not those most likely to be affected by the use of English or Dutch. For instance, as was remarked in Chapter 7.5, the literature and the interviews with job ad makers reported in Chapter 5 suggest that the use of English or Dutch may lead to differences in the perceived international nature of the organisation and the perceived use of English in the organisation, but such differences were not investigated. Future experiments should study dependent variables such as these, which may be more relevant to organisational perceptions than those studied in the current experiments. A question mark is put before organisation in the box 'Attitudes towards job, organisation, message, target group' on the receiver side of the new model in Figure 8.1, to indicate that no differences in attitudes towards the organisation were found as a result of the use of

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English or Dutch in the current experiments, but that such differences may nevertheless exist on dimensions other than those that were studied.

Thirdly, the experiments involving job ads from *de Volkskrant* and Monsterboard showed that the use of English or Dutch did not result in differences in behavioural intentions, i.e. intentions to apply for the job advertised. These findings contrast with those of experiments testing the effect of the use of English in product ads among Hispanics in the United States of America (Luna & Peracchio, 2005a, 2005b; Roslow & Nicholls, 1996), which showed that language use did affect purchase intentions. However, the findings of the experiments in the current study are consistent with an experiment involving promotional websites in the Netherlands (Dasselaar et al., 2005), in which behavioural intentions were not found to be affected by the use of English or Dutch. They are also partly congruous with an experiment testing the effects of English in Dutch radio commercials (Smakman et al., 2009). While purchasing intentions were higher for the all-Dutch version of one of two commercials tested than for its partly English counterpart, for the other commercial there was no difference in purchasing intention between the partly English and all-Dutch version. As was observed in Chapter 7.5, the relative lack of effect in terms of Dutch respondents' behavioural intentions may be due to the different status of English in the Netherlands. Unlike English for US Hispanics, for Dutch people English is not a language of communication which competes with their first language and hence may not evoke equally strong attitudes and as a result may not affect behavioural intentions to the same extent. It could also be the case that language use in job ads is less likely to affect behavioural intentions than in product ads, as the consequences of job choice are more far reaching than of decisions to buy a product. Further research would need to investigate to what extent behavioural intentions are affected by language use in job ads in countries where English and the native language are competing languages of communication. In the new model in Figure 8.1, a question mark was put in the box 'behavioural intentions' on the receiver side, to indicate that the current experiments did not find differences in behavioural intentions as a result of the use of English or Dutch in job ads.

Finally, the experiments involving job ads from *de Volkskrant* and Monsterboard showed that the use of English or Dutch did not lead to

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differences in respondents' evaluations of the intelligibility of the job ads. This is in contrast with what was indicated in the model by the arrow from the box 'comprehension of English' to the box 'comprehension of message'. In both experiments, some differences were found in either or both estimated and actual comprehension of individual English words and phrases and their Dutch counterparts. It might have been expected that these differences would be reflected in respondents' evaluations of the intelligibility of the whole job ad. As was pointed out in Chapter 7.5, in the job title experiment, intelligibility of the job title was not reported as a separate variable, but as part of attitude to the job title. To indicate that no differences were found in respondents' evaluations of the intelligibility of job ads resulting from the use of English or Dutch, a question mark is put in the box 'comprehension of message' on the receiver side of the new model in Figure 8.1. In future research, the influence of the use of English or Dutch on comprehension of the message could be also investigated in different ways, i.e. by asking open-ended comprehension questions and by asking respondents to summarise the main points of the job ad.

Aspects not investigated on the receiver side

There are a number of aspects of the receiver side of the model that were not investigated in the experiments and therefore their relevance cannot be confirmed or disconfirmed. These aspects should be studied in future experiments.

The first aspect that was not tested was whether English texts or terms were indeed *recognised* by the respondents as English. According to the model presented in Chapter 1.3.6, people recognise words and phrases as belonging to a particular language and this language then evokes certain symbolic associations, which are subsequently transferred to the job, the organisation, the text and the target group. It may be that certain English terms in largely Dutch job ads were not recognised or seen as English by the respondents, because they regarded them as in common use in Dutch, e.g. the word 'service' in the Monsterboard experiment. This would be in accordance with Larson's comment reported in Chapter 3.3.6 that certain English terms are considered assimilated in Swedish (1990, p. 378) and the observation by makers of partly-English job ads that the English terms in

their ads are common in Dutch society (Chapter 5.3.3.2). If English terms were indeed not recognised as English, these terms would not evoke symbolic associations with English, which would explain why there were hardly any symbolic effects for partly English texts. This suggestion fits in with research by Giles, Bourhis and Davies, (1974, p. 593) and Giles, Bourhis, Trudgill, and Lewis (1974, p. 408), which has shown that respondents who were familiar with accents evaluated these accents differently in terms of prestige and pleasantness, while respondents who were not familiar with these accents did not evaluate them differently. However, this argument would not seem a plausible explanation for the absence of symbolic effects for the all-English job ads, since it would seem unlikely that an all-English job ad was not recognised as English (cf. Noriega & Blair, 2008, p. 76, whose experiment among Hispanic American respondents showed that the overwhelming majority of participants correctly indicated whether the ad they had seen was in Spanish or in English). In order to check whether respondents recognise English job advertisements and English terms in Dutch job ads as English, future research should include questions asking respondents to indicate the language of the job ads they have evaluated and of the terms in these job ads (cf. Giles, Bourhis, & Davies, 1974, p. 593; Giles, Bourhis, Trudgill, & Lewis, 1974, p. 408; Noriega & Blair, 2008, p. 76). The dotted border of the box around 'recognition of English' on the receiver side of the new model in Figure 8.1 indicates that this element was not researched in this study.

A second aspect of the model that was not investigated is the *transfer of symbolic associations* with English or Dutch to the job, the organization, the message and the target group. The job title experiment did study to what extent associations with English and Dutch differed, but it did not link the associations to the entities in the model. It also did not research how respondents' associations related to their attitudes to the job title and the job (cf. Hornikx et al., 2007, who investigated the relationship between Dutch respondents' associations with foreign languages in products ads, on the one hand, and their appreciation of these advertisements, on the other). These are topics that should be addressed in future research. In the new model in Figure 8.1, the box around 'transfer of symbolic associations to: job, organisation, message, target group' on the receiver side is bordered by a dotted line, to indicate that this element was not researched in this study.

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A third aspect of the model that was not studied was the *influence of comprehension on attitudes to the job, organisation, message and target group*. The dotted arrow from the box 'comprehension of message' to the box 'attitudes towards job, organisation, message, target group' on the receiver side of the new model in Figure 8.1 indicates that this influence was not researched in this study. Gerritsen et al. (2000) found that Dutch respondents' comprehension of English in TV commercials (measured as their ability to transcribe the spoken English text) correlated positively with their attitude to the English used. Similarly, Hornikx et al. (2010) found that Dutch respondents' comprehension of English slogans affected their attitudes towards the ad in which they were used, and Hornikx and Starren (2006) found the same for French slogans. Even though these are indications that comprehension of English (and perhaps of foreign languages generally) affects attitudes, future research should investigate whether this is also true for English in job ads.

A fourth aspect of the model that was not investigated is the effect of the use of English or Dutch on *actual behaviour*, that is, on actual job pursuit decisions. This is indicated by the dotted border of the box around 'behaviour' on the receiver side of the new model in Figure 8.1. The two experiments involving complete job ads only investigated behavioural intentions, i.e. job pursuit intentions. This limitation is shared by all studies into the effects of the use of English versus another language in advertising. However, Bourhis and Giles (1976) did investigate the impact of language choice and accentedness on actual behaviour, albeit not in relation to advertising but in a message aiming to persuade people to complete and return questionnaires (see Chapter 1.3.2). In future research, the effect of the use of English in job advertisements on people's decisions to apply for a job could be investigated experimentally by asking organisations to place different versions of their job ads, with and without English, and to measure the response to the different versions in terms of applications received. By asking organisations to advertise real jobs in this way, the ethical problems involved in researchers placing fake advertisements would be avoided. In addition to studying actual behaviour in terms of numbers of applications received, for online job advertisements actual behaviour may also be studied in terms of click rates and in terms of the English or Dutch search terms that job seekers actually use in their online job searches.

8.3.4 Context and receiver

There are a number of possible context influences on receivers of job ad messages. However, these influences were not experimentally investigated in the experiments reported in Chapter 7.

First of all, the findings from the *de Volkskrant* and Monsterboard job ad experiments show that the use of English had little or no influence on attitudes to the ad and recruiting outcomes. This may be due to the frequent use of English in Dutch society, which may explain why respondents react to English and Dutch in job ads in similar ways. As was described in Chapter 2.2.5, experiments with product ads similarly showed that the use of English or Dutch had little effect on respondents' attitudes (Dasselaar et al., 2005; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007; Smakman et al., 2009), which may also be due to English being common in product advertising and in society in general.

Secondly, the findings regarding the effect of the use of English on comprehension in the two experiments may be explained by, on the one hand, the high level of passive English proficiency among highly educated people (Bonnet, 2004, p. 139; Van Hest, De Jong, & Stoks, 2001, as cited in Edelenbos & De Jong, 2004, p. 24; see Chapter 2.2.5) and, on the other hand, Dutch people's tendency to overestimate their English language proficiency (Van Onna & Jansen, 2006c, as discussed in Chapter 2.2.5). The high level of passive English proficiency among highly educated people may also explain why there were no differences in actual comprehension between all-English and all-Dutch ads both in the *de Volkskrant* and the Monsterboard experiments, and between the partly-English and partly-Dutch ads in the Monsterboard experiment. Dutch people's tendency to overestimate their English language proficiency may explain why the estimated comprehension of English terms in the all-English Monsterboard job ad was higher than that of their Dutch equivalents in the all-Dutch version.

The job title experiment reported in Chapter 7 showed that attitudes towards some English job titles were less positive than the attitudes towards equivalent Dutch job titles, but that attitudes towards some jobs with English job titles were more positive. These findings cannot be explained by referring to context in the same way as for the attitude findings in the experiments involving complete job ads. In fact, the high frequency with

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which English job titles are encountered in the corpus analyses would make it more likely that English job titles are seen to be just as 'normal' as their Dutch equivalents. However, it is possible to explain the response to English job titles with reference to another aspect of context. That is to say, the use of English in job titles may evoke different responses than the use of English in entire ads because English in job titles has received more explicit attention in societal treatment of English in the Netherlands than English in full job ads (see Chapter 3 and 4.4.2). The discussions about English job titles in Dutch media and other publications may have made such titles more of a shibboleth to which people respond strongly. The experimental findings for attitudes towards English job titles concur with opinions expressed in such publications to the effect that English job titles are out of place, strange, puffed-up and linguistically impoverished (Ampzing Genootschap, 2004, p. 28; Ampzing Genootschap, n.d.; De Koning, 1989; Eiffel, 2006; Peereboom, 1991; Tiggeler & Doeve, n.d. [2005], p. 67; see Chapter 3.2.2, 3.3.6, and 4.4.2). The experimental findings for positive attitudes towards the jobs covered by English job titles concur with opinions expressed in the Dutch media which suggests that English job titles confer more prestige (De Koning, 1989; Peereboom, 1991; Tiggeler & Doeve, n.d. [2005], p. 67; Van der Sijs, 1996, p. 26; Wagenaar, 2002, pp. 26-27; see Chapter 3.2.1 and 4.4.2). A way of experimentally investigating the impact of societal treatment of English in job ads on respondents' attitudes would be to prime the respondents with sentiments typically expressed in such societal treatment. This could be done by asking them to read a text expressing either a strong negative or a strong positive opinion on the use of English in job ads, before they evaluate a job ad with English or Dutch (cf. Luna & Peracchio, 2005a, p. 763; 2005b, p. 49).

So far, this section has discussed possible links between context and receiver by presenting information about the role of English in Dutch society that is consistent with the findings of the experiments in the current study. However, there is a discrepancy between the attitudes towards English found in surveys and those found in the experiments in the current study. Surveys carried out among the general Dutch population and the among Dutch secondary school pupils show a generally positive attitude towards English (Bonnet, 2004, p. 90; De Bot et al., 2007, pp. 63-64; De Bot & Weltens, 1997; European Commission, 2006, p. 32; see Chapter 2.2.5). In contrast, the job ad experiments reveal a lack of clear differences in attitudes towards

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Dutch and English and the job title experiment indicates less positive attitudes to English job titles compared to their Dutch equivalents.

It may be that this discrepancy in the attitudes found in the job ad experiments and in the surveys shows that there is a difference between attitudes towards English in different domains, as is suggested by Smit (1996, p. 35) (see Chapter 2.3). In this case, attitudes towards English in the specific domain of job ads may be different from attitudes towards the importance and likeability of the English language in general (Bonnet, 2004, p. 198; De Bot et al., 2007, p. 141); attitudes towards the importance of speaking English, the attractiveness of speakers of English, and the socio-economic advantages of speaking English (De Bot & Weltens, 1997, p. 148); and attitudes towards the usefulness of English for one's personal development and career (European Commission, 2006, p. 32). Thus, the discrepancy may result from the fact that the survey questions were about the usefulness and likeability of English in the *abstract*, whereas the experiments in the current study were about *specific* instances of the use of English. Another possible explanation for the discrepancy is that, unlike the job ad experiments, most of the surveys only measured attitudes to English and did not *compare* these to attitudes towards Dutch. The only exception was the survey reported in De Bot and Weltens (1997), which, like the job ad experiments, found that attitudes to English and Dutch were very similar. However, it is not possible to make any definitive pronouncement about the connection between general attitudes towards English and specific attitudes to English in job ads, because so far the two types of attitude have not been investigated for the same respondents. In future research, this connection should be studied by not only asking specific questions about English in job ads, but also about attitudes to and comprehension of English in domains other than job ads. Furthermore, respondents should also take a general English language proficiency test, in order to measure their actual comprehension of general English, and compare it to their comprehension of English in job ads.

This section has discussed indications that context may influence receivers of job ad messages. However, such influences have not yet been directly researched. The possible but unresearched influence of context on the receiver of a job ad message is indicated with a dotted arrow from context to receiver in the new model in Figure 8.1.

8.3.5 Links between the components

The model basically describes a one-on-one-on-one relationship between sender, message and receiver. One sender writes one job ad message which is read by individual receivers. However, the empirical studies investigated the model by researching the views of various job ad makers on the use of English or Dutch, the use of English in multiple job ads and the effect of the use of English on a large number of readers. In each study, the results of the individual units of analysis (job ad makers, job ads and job ad readers) were combined. Thus, the current studies may not have done full justice to the individual variations at each stage of the model and to the resulting effects of this variation from stage to stage. This may explain why relatively few symbolic effects of the use of English on the receivers were found in the experiments. The analysis of the reasons given by job ad makers showed that there was no single reason mentioned by *all* job ad makers for placing a particular type of ad, all-English, partly English or all-Dutch. This indicates that the same type of ad is not always motivated by the same reason. It might therefore be that in the experiments no symbolic effects of the use of English were found because senders would not expect such symbolic effects for the ads used. A suggestion for further research could therefore be to investigate the reasons of the sender of a job ad for using English or Dutch in a particular ad, then to examine how English or Dutch is actually used in the job ad message, and finally to study what effect this particular use of English has on the ad's target group. In this way, more justice would be done to the individual variation in reasons for using English or Dutch by specifically matching reasons on the sender side to language use in the job ad message and to effects on the receiver side.

8.3.6 A new model for the study of English in job advertisements in the Netherlands

This chapter has presented the findings of the empirical studies that support the model, made suggestions for adaptations to the model, and pointed out aspects of the model that have not been investigated. Together, these result in a new model of the role of English in job ads in the Netherlands, depicted in Figure 8.1.



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Solid lines and arrows indicate that the element concerned or the link between elements has been researched in this study and that its relevance has been confirmed. On the *sender* side, this is true for the influence of both (un)conscious symbolic and non-symbolic reasons for the use of English in relation to job, organisation, message and target group. With respect to the *message* component, it applies to the influence of factors concerning job, organisation, message and target group on the extent to which English is used in the message. On the *receiver* side, it is valid for the influence of English on attitudes towards the job and the message and for the influence of English on comprehension (of words and phrases). It is also true for the influence of context on both the sender and the message.

Line thickness indicates the relatively greater importance of the influence of (un)conscious non-symbolic reasons on the use of English by *senders* compared to that of (un)conscious symbolic reasons.

Question marks indicate that the element has been researched in this study, but that no differences were found between English and Dutch. On the *receiver* side, this is true for the activation of symbolic associations through the recognition of English, the influence of English on attitude towards organisation, the influence of English on behavioural intentions, and the influence of comprehension of English on comprehension of the whole job ad message.

Dotted lines and arrows indicate that the element has not been researched in this study. On the *receiver* side this is the case for recognition of English, transfer of symbolic associations to job, organisation, message and target group, the influence of English on attitude towards the target group, and the influence of English on actual behaviour. It also applies to the influence of comprehension of English – through comprehension of the message – on attitudes to job, organisation, message and target group. Finally, a dotted arrow indicates that the influence of *context* on the receiver has not been researched.

8.4 Contributions of the current study

This study has made a number of contributions to existing insights on the use of English in job ads in the Netherlands and its effects. While existing insights mainly consisted of opinions and incidental observations (see

Chapter 3), the current study has provided *empirical* data on the subject, from three perspectives, that of the sender of the job ad message, the job message itself and the receiver of the job ad message. As was discussed in Sections 8.2 and 8.3, it has validated the relevance of the various elements from the model proposed in Chapter 1.3.6 to describe this phenomenon, and also suggested some adaptations to the model. The empirical data that were collected have shown the value and limitations of the comments made in societal treatment about the use of English in job ads. A number of the reasons suggested for the use of English and opinions expressed about this in societal treatment were found to be relevant to makers of job ads (see Tables 5.11 and 5.12), were shown to be factors that influenced the extent to which English was used in the corpora of job ads studied (see Chapter 6), and were revealed to be shared by the respondents in the job title experiment (see Chapter 7). However, the experiments involving full job ads (see Chapter 7) indicate that respondents' reactions to English were more neutral than either the positive or the negative views expressed in societal treatment, which respectively described it as prestige-enhancing or as odd and incomprehensible. As was pointed in Chapter 7.4.4, this discrepancy is in line with what has been called the "spokesman problem" (De Bot & Weltens, 1997, pp. 145-147), i.e. that opinion leaders' attitudes to the use of English in the Netherlands may be different from those of ordinary language users. It may not be surprising that the views expressed in societal treatment are more extreme, since people may only feel the need to publish their views when they feel particularly strongly about them.

The current study has also made a number of contributions to job ad research. In her handbook on recruitment research, Barber (1998, pp. 8, 144) points out that there is a need to study organisations' perspectives on recruitment. By revealing the job ad makers' perspectives on the use of English in the recruitment medium of job ads, the interviews in Chapter 5 have added to understanding of the organisational view of recruitment. Furthermore, as was remarked in Chapter 1.2.4, most of the research investigating the impact of aspects of job ads on job seekers has concentrated on content matters rather than matters of form (cf. Barber, 1998, pp. 39-45). By studying the impact of the use of English instead of Dutch, the experiments in Chapter 7 have contributed to the small body of literature that has investigated the way content in job ads is presented (see Chapter

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1.2.4). The job title experiment showed that the use of English affected respondents' attitudes to some of the *titles* in a negative way and to some of the *jobs* in a positive way. The experiments involving full job ads showed that the use of English had very little impact, except on evaluation of the naturalness of the ad and on comprehension. A possible explanation for this lack of effect, in addition to the other explanations offered in the current chapter and in Chapter 7.5, may be found in one of the most recent experimental studies of the effect of job ad form characteristics, Jones et al. (2006). They studied the effect of layout features from the theoretical perspective of the Elaboration Likelihood Model (cf. Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) and found that such features affected the job pursuit intentions of participants who processed the job ads peripherally, but not those of participants who processed them centrally. It may be that respondents in the experiments involving full job ads reported in Chapter 7 processed the job ads centrally. However, this was not checked. Future research should address this issue by testing experimentally whether the use of English has a different effect on respondents depending on whether they process the ad more centrally or more peripherally (cf. Chen & Chang, 2003, pp. 3-4; Hosman, 2002, p. 383).

8.5 Practical implications for makers of job advertisements

The findings of the job ad experiments have a number of practical implications for makers of job advertisements. They show that the use of English or Dutch in full job ads does not result in differences in symbolic effects (except for evaluations of the naturalness of the ad). This implies that job ad makers can use either language without causing any differences in perceived image of the job and the organisation and in application intentions, nor in attitude to the job ad. The experiment involving Dutch and English job titles revealed mainly positive symbolic effects of the use of English on the perception of jobs. If job ad makers wish to create a positive image and are in a position to present job titles in isolation, for instance in previews of Internet job ads, the use of English can therefore be recommended.

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The results for the effects of English or Dutch on comprehension were mixed. In some cases English was understood less well, and in other cases English was understood better than Dutch, while in yet other cases there were no differences in comprehension. Thus it is not possible to formulate one general principle to guarantee better comprehension. However, it would seem advisable to pre-test the comprehension of English and Dutch in job ads using members of the target group. This is consistent with advice given on the basis of experiments on the effects of comprehension of English and Dutch in product advertisements (Gerritsen & Van Meurs, under review; Hornikx et al., 2010).

While the image and comprehension effects on Dutch respondents are the same as those of partly-English and all-Dutch ads, all-English ads have the added advantage that they can be used to reach potential applicants who cannot read Dutch, as is pointed out by the majority of the makers of all-English job ads interviewed (Chapter 5.3.3.1). It is therefore recommended to place all-English job ads if job ad makers wish to reach both Dutch speaking and non-Dutch speaking target groups.

It must be borne in mind that these recommendations are based on experiments carried out among highly educated respondents. General language tests reveal that English language proficiency of secondary school students at lower levels of education is poorer than of those at higher levels of education (Bonnet, 2004, p. 139; Van Hest et al., 2001, as cited in Edelenbos & De Jong, 2004, p. 24; see Chapter 2.2.5). In line with this, experiments involving product ads have shown that respondents with a lower educational background comprehend English in such ads less well than more highly educated respondents (Gerritsen et al., 2000; Smakman et al., 2009; see Chapter 2.2.5). This suggests that job ad makers who wish their ads to be understood by applicants with a lower educational background should use Dutch rather than English. However, experimental research involving job ads aimed at such applicants is still required to verify the validity of this suggestion.

The experimental studies reported in this dissertation have not borne out the worries expressed by cartoon character (and seventeenth-century writer) Samuel Ampzing about the negative effects for job ad makers of the use of English in Dutch job advertisements: “No wonder they can’t find any

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personnel in Holland...!” (Ampzing Genootschap, 2004, p. 28; Ampzing Genootschap, n.d.; see Figure 3.1 in Chapter 3.3.6 and the cover illustration). While Ampzing may have been mistaken about the negative impact of English on Dutch people’s application intentions, his surprise at being confronted with English in Dutch job ads shows that he does not take the phenomenon for granted but questions it. It is this questioning attitude that has inspired the current study and that will hopefully lead to follow-up studies in the future.

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Summary in Dutch

Engels in personeelsadvertenties in Nederland: redenen, gebruik en effecten

In deze studie wordt verslag gedaan van onderzoek naar Engels in personeelsadvertenties in Nederland. Over dit onderwerp worden in de literatuur en in de media geregeld opmerkingen gemaakt (zie hoofdstuk 3), maar er bestaat weinig empirisch onderzoek op dit gebied (met uitzondering van Gerritsen, 2001, 2002; Renkema et al., 2001). Het huidige onderzoek richtte zich op drie aspecten: redenen voor het gebruik van Engels, een analyse van het gebruik ervan (frequentie en factoren die de frequentie bepalen) en de effecten ervan op lezers.

Theoretisch kader

Het theoretisch kader voor deze studie is gebaseerd op studies over personeelsadvertenties (hoofdstuk 1.2) en op studies over Engels en andere vreemde talen in productadvertenties (hoofdstuk 1.3). De literatuur over personeelsadvertenties leidde tot een aantal aandachtspunten voor het huidige onderzoek: de elementen van personeelsadvertenties waarin Engels voor zou kunnen komen en aspecten waarop effectonderzoek zich zou moeten richten (rekruteringsuitkomsten, zoals attitude tegenover de organisatie en sollicitatie-intenties, en attitude tegenover de advertentie). Op basis van de literatuur over vreemde talen in productadvertenties werd in het huidige onderzoek onderscheid gemaakt tussen symbolische en niet-symbolische aspecten van Engels (vgl. Hornikx & Starren, 2006; Hornikx et al., 2005, 2007; Kelly-Holmes, 2000, 2005; Piller, 2001, 2003). Symbolische aspecten zijn gedefinieerd als aspecten die betrekking hebben op eigenschappen die niet objectief waarneembaar zijn in de advertentie of in de wereld buiten de advertentie, en ook niet expliciet vermeld worden in de advertentie. Niet-symbolische aspecten zijn gedefinieerd als aspecten die objectief waarneembaar zijn in de advertentie of in de wereld buiten de advertentie.

Summary in Dutch

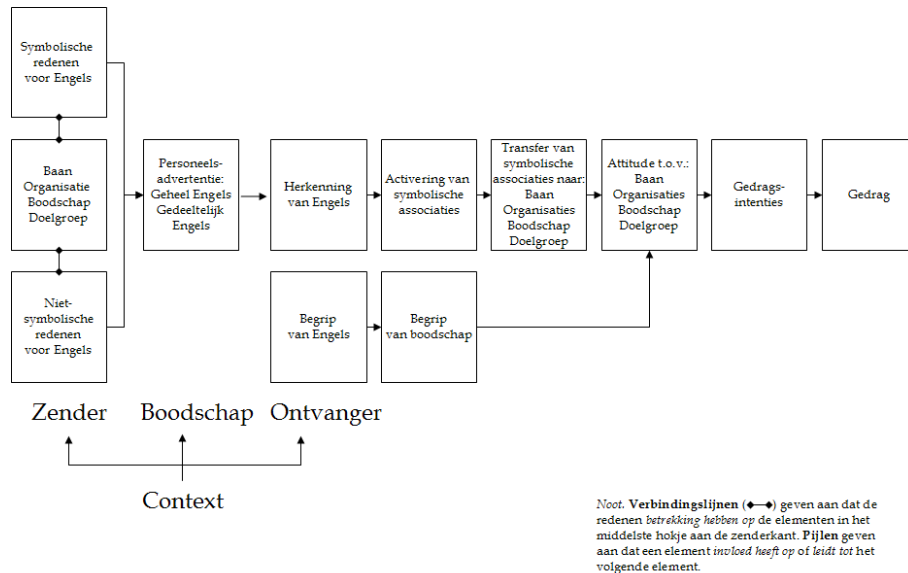
Op grond van het model van Hornikx en Starren (2006) voor symbolische associaties van vreemde talen in reclame (zie ook Hornikx et al., 2005; 2007) werd een model ontwikkeld voor Engels in personeelsadvertenties in Nederland. Dit model is afgebeeld in Figuur 1.4.

Aan de *zenderkant* worden redenen voor het gebruik van Engels weergegeven als symbolisch en niet-symbolisch. De symbolische redenen hebben betrekking op het oproepen van associaties met de geadverteerde baan, de organisatie die de vacature adverteert, de advertentieboodschap en de doelgroep. De niet-symbolische redenen hebben betrekking op overwegingen zoals het gebruik van Engels in de organisatie, de afwezigheid van dekkende Nederlandse synoniemen in de boodschap en de begrijpelijkheid van de boodschap voor de doelgroep.

De *boodschapcomponent* bestaat uit de personeelsadvertentie. Hierin kan Engels zich op twee manieren manifesteren: de advertentie kan volledig in het Engels zijn of losse Engelse woorden en zinnen bevatten. De pijl van de zenderkant naar de boodschapcomponent geeft aan dat de symbolische en niet-symbolische redenen van de zender hun weerslag hebben op de personeelsadvertentie (boodschap) die de zender plaatst.

De pijl van de boodschapcomponent naar de *ontvangerkant* laat zien dat een boodschap met Engels invloed kan hebben op de ontvanger van de boodschap. De symbolische invloed gaat via de activering van associaties met Engels die worden overgedragen op de baan, de organisatie, de boodschap en de doelgroep. Deze symbolische associaties kunnen op hun beurt de attitudes van de ontvanger bepalen tegenover de baan, de organisatie, de boodschap en de doelgroep. De invloed van Engels op de ontvanger kan ook niet-symbolisch zijn. Begrip van Engels kan begrip van de boodschap beïnvloeden, wat op zijn beurt weer de attitude tegenover de boodschap kan beïnvloeden. Vervolgens kunnen de attitudes tegenover de baan, de organisatie, de boodschap en de doelgroep de gedragsintenties (sollicitatie-intenties) en het daadwerkelijke gedrag van de ontvanger beïnvloeden (de beslissing om al dan niet te solliciteren).

De component *context*, de rol die Engels speelt in Nederland buiten het domein van personeelsadvertenties, kan invloed hebben op het besluit van adverteerders om Engels te gebruiken, op het gebruik van Engels in de advertentie en op het effect dat het Engels heeft op de ontvanger van de boodschap.



Figuur 1.4. Een model voor de rol van Engels in personeelsadvertenties in Nederland van zender naar ontvanger.

Doelen en methodes van de studie

Deze studie had tot doel inzicht te verschaffen in de rol van Engels in personeelsadvertenties in Nederland door middel van empirisch onderzoek naar drie van de vier componenten in het model in Figuur 1.4: zender, boodschap en ontvanger.

Het eerste doel was na te gaan hoe zenders aankijken tegen het gebruik van Engels in personeelsadvertenties in Nederland: hoe bewust ze Engels gebruiken, hoe ze de begrijpelijkheid ervan inschatten en testen, en wat hun redenen zijn om Engels te gebruiken. Hiervoor werden 27 interviews afgenomen met opstellers van personeelsadvertenties die verschenen waren in drie landelijke dagbladen (*de Volkskrant*, *NRC Handelsblad*, en *Metro*) en drie plaatselijke/regionale kranten (*De Gelderlander*, *Haarlems Dagblad*, en *De Brug Nijmegen*) tussen 29 april 2006 en 15 juli 2006. Tien interviews werden gehouden met opstellers van geheel Engelse advertenties, negen met opstellers van gedeeltelijk Engelse advertenties en acht met opstellers van geheel Nederlandse advertenties.

Summary in Dutch

Het tweede doel was te bepalen in welke mate Engels gebruikt wordt in de boodschap, personeelsadvertenties in Nederland, en van welke factoren dat afhangt. Hiervoor werden twee corpusanalyses uitgevoerd, een van een willekeurige selectie van 120 advertenties uit vier opeenvolgende zaterdagedities van *de Volkskrant* (4, 11, 18 en 25 augustus 2001), en een van een willekeurige selectie van 120 advertenties gevonden op de vacaturesite Monsterboard op 17 februari 2004.

Het derde doel was om te bepalen wat de effecten zijn van het gebruik van Engels in personeelsadvertenties in Nederland op de ontvangers ervan. Hiervoor werden drie experimenten met een tussenproefpersoonontwerp uitgevoerd. In het eerste experiment werden een geheel Engelse, een gedeeltelijk Engelse en een geheel Nederlandse versie van een advertentie beoordeeld door 90 studenten van de Faculteit der Letteren, de Faculteit der Managementwetenschappen en de Faculteit der Sociale Wetenschappen van de Katholieke Universiteit Nijmegen (nu Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen) en de Universiteit Utrecht. De Engelse woorden in de gedeeltelijk Engelse versie waren gebaseerd op de bovengenoemde corpusanalyse van advertenties in *de Volkskrant*. In het tweede experiment werden een geheel Engelse, een gedeeltelijk Engelse en een geheel Nederlandse versie van een advertentie beoordeeld door 90 heao-studenten van de Hogeschool Zeeland. De Engelse woorden in de gedeeltelijk Engelse versie waren gebaseerd op de bovengenoemde corpusanalyse van advertenties op Monsterboard. In het derde experiment werden vijf Engelse en vijf Nederlandse functiebenamingen beoordeeld door 60 studenten van de Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen. Deze functiebenamingen waren gebaseerd op functiebenamingen die gevonden waren op Monsterboard op 3 juni 2005.

Onderzoeksvragen en resultaten

De onderzoeksvragen van de empirische onderzoeken in deze studie worden hieronder gepresenteerd, met een samenvatting van de belangrijkste bevindingen, gevolgd door conclusies over de rol van context.

Het zenderperspectief op Engels en Nederlands in personeelsadvertenties (hoofdstuk 5)

Onderzoeksvraag 1: In welke mate besluiten opstellers van personeelsadvertenties bewust om Engels of Nederlands te gebruiken in de advertenties die ze plaatsen?

De meerderheid van de geïnterviewde opstellers van personeelsadvertenties gaf aan dat zij een bewuste beslissing hadden genomen om een geheel Engelse, gedeeltelijk Engelse of geheel Nederlandse advertentie te plaatsen. De respondenten die aangaven dat zij daartoe geen bewuste beslissing hadden genomen, motiveerden hun taalgebruik achteraf door te verwijzen naar de omstandigheden die tot hun beslissing hadden geleid, bijvoorbeeld het gebruik van Engelse of Nederlandse termen in de sector waarbinnen hun organisatie werkzaam was.

Onderzoeksvraag 2: Hoe zien opstellers van personeelsadvertenties de begrijpelijkheid van het Engels of Nederlands dat ze gebruiken, en in welke mate testen zij de begrijpelijkheid hiervan?

De meeste van de geïnterviewde opstellers van personeelsadvertenties merkten op dat de geheel Engelse, gedeeltelijk Engelse of geheel Nederlandse advertentie die ze geplaatst hadden, geen begripsproblemen zou opleveren voor de doelgroepen van deze advertenties. De meerderheid van de respondenten ging echter niet na of de advertenties die ze geplaatst hadden, begrepen werden door de doelgroep.

Onderzoeksvraag 3: Welke redenen geven opstellers van personeelsadvertenties om al dan niet Engels te gebruiken in personeelsadvertenties, en hoe verhouden die redenen zich tot het model in Hoofdstuk 1.3?

Onderzoeksvraag 3a: In welke mate geven opstellers van personeelsadvertenties symbolische redenen om al dan niet Engels te gebruiken?

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Onderzoeksvraag 3b: In welke mate geven opstellers van personeelsadvertenties niet-symbolische redenen om al dan niet Engels te gebruiken?

De redenen die de opstellers van de personeelsadvertenties gaven voor het plaatsen van een geheel Engelse, gedeeltelijk Engelse en geheel Nederlandse advertentie, waren *zowel symbolisch als niet-symbolisch*. Symbolische redenen waren gedefinieerd als redenen die betrekking hadden op eigenschappen die niet objectief waarneembaar waren in de advertentie of in de wereld buiten de advertentie, en ook niet expliciet vermeld werden in de advertentie. Een voorbeeld van een symbolische reden is dat een geheel Engelse advertentie geplaatst werd om aan te geven dat de organisatie internationaal was. Niet-symbolische redenen waren gedefinieerd als redenen die betrekking hadden op aspecten die objectief waarneembaar waren in de advertentie of in de wereld buiten de advertentie. Een voorbeeld van een niet-symbolische reden voor het gebruik van Engelse woorden in gedeeltelijk Engelse advertenties is dat de gebruikte Engelse termen gebruikelijk waren in de organisatie. De meerderheid van de geïnterviewden noemde vaker niet-symbolische redenen dan symbolische.

Onderzoeksvraag 3c: Op welke van de entiteiten in het model (zender, boodschap, ontvanger, context) hebben de symbolische redenen die opstellers van personeelsadvertenties geven, betrekking?

Onderzoeksvraag 3d: Op welke van de entiteiten in het model (zender, boodschap, ontvanger, context) hebben de niet-symbolische redenen die opstellers van personeelsadvertenties geven, betrekking?

De symbolische en niet-symbolische redenen die de opstellers van personeelsadvertenties gaven voor het plaatsen van een geheel Engelse, gedeeltelijk Engelse en geheel Nederlandse advertentie hadden betrekking op alle entiteiten in het model: de organisatie met de vacature (*zender*); de geadverteerde baan, de tekst van de advertentie als geheel en woorden in de advertentie (*boodschap*); de doelgroep van de advertentie (*ontvanger*); de sector waartoe de organisatie behoorde en de Nederlandse samenleving (*context*). Er waren echter wel verschillen in de entiteiten die genoemd

werden tussen de opstellers van geheel Engelse, gedeeltelijk Engelse en geheel Nederlandse personeelsadvertenties. In tegenstelling tot de andere twee types werden de geheel Engelse advertenties noch gemotiveerd met symbolische redenen op woordniveau noch met niet-symbolische redenen op tekstniveau. De gedeeltelijk Engelse advertenties verschilden van de andere twee types doordat het gebruik van Engels daarin gemotiveerd werd met symbolische redenen die betrekking hadden op de tekst van de advertentie en met niet-symbolische redenen die betrekking hadden op de Nederlandse samenleving, en doordat het niet gemotiveerd werd met symbolische redenen die betrekking hadden op de organisatie en de doelgroep. Alleen het taalgebruik in de geheel Nederlandse advertenties werd gemotiveerd met niet-symbolische redenen die betrekking hadden op de aard van de baan.

De mate waarin Engels gebruikt wordt in personeelsadvertenties en factoren die daarvoor bepalend zijn (hoofdstuk 6)

Onderzoeksvraag 4: In welke mate wordt Engels gebruikt in personeelsadvertenties in Nederland?

Een corpusanalyse van 120 personeelsadvertenties uit *de Volkskrant* en van 120 personeelsadvertenties op Monsterboard leidde tot de volgende bevindingen over de mate waarin Engels wordt gebruikt. Het bleek dat 40% van de personeelsadvertenties in *de Volkskrant* en 87.5% van de personeelsadvertenties op Monsterboard Engels bevatte. Het percentage geheel Engelse advertenties was respectievelijk 0.8% en 4%. Het percentage gedeeltelijk Engelse advertenties was 39% in *de Volkskrant* en 83% op Monsterboard. Het gemiddelde percentage Engelse woorden in gedeeltelijk Engelse advertenties was 1.8% in *de Volkskrant* en 17.9% op Monsterboard.

Onderzoeksvraag 5: Welke factoren bepalen de mate waarin Engels gebruikt wordt in personeelsadvertenties in Nederland?

Onderzoeksvraag 5a: In welke mate is de proportie van het Engels dat gebruikt wordt in personeelsadvertenties afhankelijk van het feit dat

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de organisaties die de vacatures aanbieden, vestigingen in verschillende landen hebben, of alleen vestigingen in Nederland?

De mate waarin Engels gebruikt werd, was zowel in het *Volkskrant* als het Monsterboard corpus groter in personeelsadvertenties die geplaatst waren door multinationale organisaties dan in advertenties van organisaties die alleen vestigingen hadden in Nederland.

Onderzoeksvraag 5b: In welke mate is de proportie van het Engels dat gebruikt wordt in personeelsadvertenties afhankelijk van de economische sector van de organisatie met de vacature?

In de advertenties uit *de Volkskrant* bleek er geen verschil te zijn in de mate waarin Engels werd gebruikt in verschillende sectoren. In het Monsterboard corpus was het percentage Engelse woorden hoger in advertenties uit de sector Vervoer, Opslag en Communicatie en de sector Zakelijke Dienstverlening dan in advertenties uit de sector Financiële Instellingen.

Onderzoeksvraag 5c: In welke mate is de proportie van het Engels dat gebruikt wordt in personeelsadvertenties afhankelijk van het onderwijsniveau dat vereist is voor de positie die geadverteerd wordt?

In de advertenties uit *de Volkskrant* bleek de mate waarin Engels gebruikt werd niet te verschillen tussen beroepen met een verschillend opleidingsniveau. In de advertenties van Monsterboard werd Engels meer gebruikt voor hogere beroepen en wetenschappelijke beroepen dan voor middelbare beroepen.

Onderzoeksvraag 5d: In welke mate zijn er verschillen in de proportie van het Engels dat gebruikt wordt in verschillende onderdelen van gedeeltelijk Engelse personeelsadvertenties?

In zowel het *Volkskrant* corpus als het Monsterboard corpus was de proportie Engelse woorden hoger in functiebenamingen dan in andere onderdelen van de advertenties.

Onderzoeksvraag 5e: Welke proportie Engelse woorden in personeelsadvertenties heeft Nederlandse vertaalequivalenten?

Voor een meerderheid van de Engelse woorden in de gedeeltelijk Engelse advertenties uit zowel het *Volkskrant* corpus als het Monsterboard corpus bleken Nederlandse vertaalequivalenten te bestaan.

Onderzoeksvraag 5f: Van welke proportie Engelse woorden in personeelsadvertenties kan verwacht worden dat ze relatief makkelijk te begrijpen zijn voor Nederlandse lezers met een basiskennis Engels, omdat ze Nederlandse *cognates* (etymologisch verwante woorden) hebben en/of behoren tot de meest frequente woorden in de Engelse taal?

De meerderheid van de Engelse woorden in de gedeeltelijk Engelse woorden in zowel het *Volkskrant* corpus als het Monsterboard corpus was potentieel relatief makkelijk te begrijpen voor Nederlandse lezers met een basiskennis Engels, omdat ze Nederlandse *cognates* hadden en/of behoorden tot de meest frequente woorden in de Engelse taal.

Het effect van het gebruik van Engels op ontvangers van personeelsadvertenties (hoofdstuk 7)

Onderzoeksvraag 6: In welke mate zijn er verschillen in de effecten die geheel Engelse, gedeeltelijk Engelse en geheel Nederlandse equivalente personeelsadvertenties hebben op Nederlandse respondenten in termen van *attitude tegenover de advertentie* (aantrekkelijkheid; natuurlijkheid), *begrip* (ingeschatte begrijpelijkheid van de advertentie; ingeschat en daadwerkelijk begrip van de gebruikte Engelse en Nederlandse termen) en *rekruteringsuitkomsten* (attitudes tegenover de organisatie die de baan adverteert; attitudes tegenover de baan die geadverteerd wordt; sollicitatie-intenties)?

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Het gebruik van Engels bleek weinig effect te hebben op *attitudes tegenover de advertentie*, met als enige uitzondering dat in het experiment met advertenties uit *de Volkskrant* de geheel Engelse advertentie natuurlijker werd gevonden dan de gedeeltelijk Engelse en geheel Nederlandse tegenhangers daarvan. Wat betreft *begrip*, werd een aantal effecten gevonden. Het daadwerkelijke en ingeschatte begrip van de Engelse termen in de gedeeltelijk Engelse advertentie uit *de Volkskrant* was slechter dan dat van de Nederlandse equivalenten daarvan in de geheel Engelse advertentie, terwijl het ingeschatte begrip van de Engelse termen in de geheel Engelse advertentie van Monsterboard beter was dan dat van de Nederlandse equivalenten in de geheel Nederlandse versie. Tenslotte bleek het gebruik van Engels geen effect te hebben op *rekruteringsuitkomsten*.

Onderzoeksvraag 7: In welke mate zijn er verschillen in de effecten op Nederlandse respondenten van het gebruik van Engels of Nederlands in functiebenamingen uit personeelsadvertenties die gericht zijn op Nederlanders in termen van *attitude tegenover de functiebenamingen* (aantrekkelijkheid, natuurlijkheid), *begrijpelijkheid*, en *rekruteringsuitkomsten* (attitude tegenover de baan die aangeduid wordt met de benaming; prestige en aantrekkelijkheid; evaluatie van het internationale karakter van de baan; evaluatie van de genderoriëntatie van de baan)?

De *attitudes* van de respondenten tegenover de meeste van de onderzochte Engelse functiebenamingen waren minder positief dan de attitudes tegenover de Nederlandse equivalenten (hieronder vielen ook beoordelingen van de *begrijpelijkheid* van de functiebenamingen). De resultaten voor *rekruteringsuitkomsten* daarentegen lieten zien dat een aantal banen met Engelse benamingen positiever beoordeeld werd dan banen met equivalente Nederlandse benamingen. De banen met Engelse benamingen werden namelijk aantrekkelijker en prestigieuzer gevonden, het bijbehorende salaris werd hoger ingeschat, en ze scoorden hoger op internationaliteit. In de meeste gevallen werden banen met Engelse benamingen als mannelijker gezien dan hun Nederlandse tegenhangers.

Onderzoeksvraag 8: In welke mate roepen Engelse woorden in functiebenamingen bij Nederlandse respondenten dezelfde of verschillende associaties op als Nederlandse equivalenten?

Er werden geen verschillen gevonden tussen de Engelse en Nederlandse functiebenamingen in het totaal aantal associaties dat de respondenten opschreven, noch in het aantal positieve, neutrale en negatieve associaties.

De invloed van context

De empirische studies lieten in enkele opzichten de invloed zien van context op het gebruik van Engels. Uit de interviews in hoofdstuk 5 blijkt dat de opstellers van personeelsadvertenties aangaven dat het gebruik van Engels in hun advertenties onder andere bepaald werd door de sector waarin hun organisatie werkzaam was en door het algemene gebruik van Engels in de Nederlandse samenleving. De corpusanalyses in hoofdstuk 6 laten eveneens zien dat de verschillen in de mate waarin Engels in de personeelsadvertenties gebruikt werd, gerelateerd konden worden aan de sectoren van de organisaties die de advertenties geplaatst hadden.

Conclusies

Deze studie heeft op een aantal punten geleid tot een verdieping van inzichten in het gebruik van Engels in personeelsadvertenties in Nederland en de effecten daarvan op Nederlandse lezers. Waar bestaande inzichten vooral bestonden uit meningen en incidentele observaties (zie hoofdstuk 3), heeft de huidige studie *empirische* data verschaft over dit onderwerp vanuit drie invalshoeken: die van opstellers van personeelsadvertenties, van de advertentie zelf, en van lezers van personeelsadvertenties. Uit de interviews bleek dat de opstellers van personeelsadvertenties zowel symbolische als niet-symbolische redenen hadden om Engels of Nederlands te gebruiken. Deze redenen hadden betrekking op alle elementen uit het model. Uit de corpusanalyses bleek dat de mate van het gebruikte Engels in de personeelsadvertenties afhing van een aantal niet-symbolische factoren. Uit de experimenten bleek dat het gebruik van Engels in functiebenamingen symbolische effecten had op lezers. Het gebruik van Engels in volledige

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personeeladvertenties bleek echter nauwelijks symbolische effecten te hebben, maar wel niet-symbolische effecten, namelijk op begrip.

De empirische data toonden zowel de waarde als de beperkingen van de meningen en incidentele observaties die in de media en andere publicaties naar voren komen over het gebruik van Engels en de redenen daarvoor. De waarde bleek uit het feit dat een aantal van deze redenen en meningen ook geuit werd door opstellers van personeelsadvertenties (zie hoofdstuk 5), op factoren betrekking had die de mate bepaalden waarin Engels voorkwam in de corpora van personeelsadvertenties die zijn bestudeerd (zie hoofdstuk 6), en gedeeld werd door de respondenten in het experiment over functiebenamingen (zie hoofdstuk 7). De beperkingen bleken uit de experimenten met volledige personeelsadvertenties. Deze lieten zien dat de reacties van de respondenten op Engels neutraler waren dan de opvattingen uit de media en andere publicaties, die Engels typeerden als prestigeverhogend (bijv. Tiggeler & Doeve, n.d. [2005]) respectievelijk als vreemd (bijv. Peereboom, 1991) en onbegrijpelijk (bijv. Jansen, 2006). De discrepantie tussen de opvattingen uit de media en andere publicaties over Engels in personeelsadvertenties, aan de ene kant, en de reacties van de respondenten, aan de andere kant, sluit aan bij wat wel het “spokesman problem” genoemd is (De Bot & Weltens, 1997, pp. 145-147), namelijk dat de houding van opiniemakers tegenover Engels in Nederland verschilt van die van gewone taalgebruikers. Het is misschien niet verbazingwekkend dat de gepubliceerde opvattingen extremer zijn, aangezien iemand waarschijnlijk alleen een opvatting openbaar maakt als hij of zij daar sterke gevoelens over heeft.

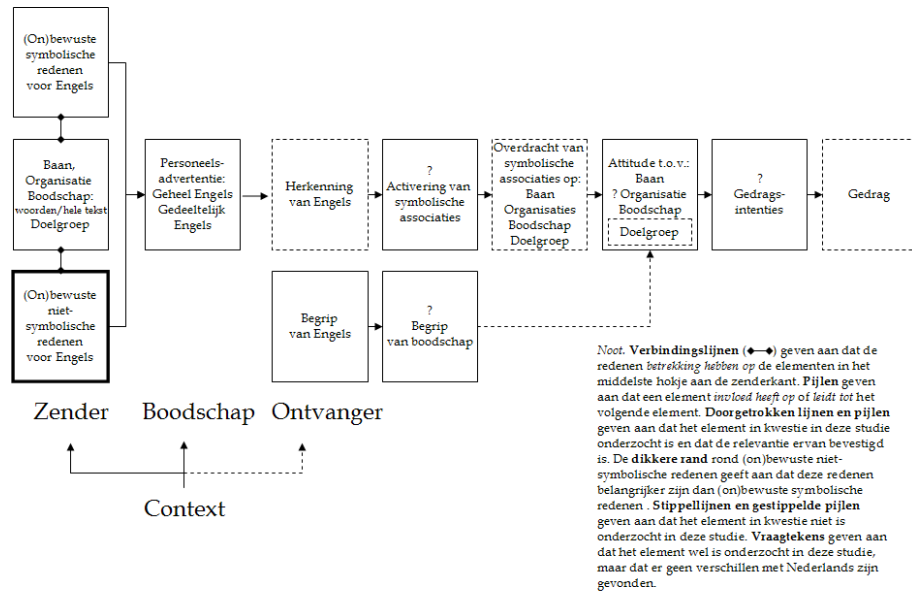
De bevinding uit de experimenten met volledige personeelsadvertenties dat het gebruik van Engels weinig effect had (behalve op evaluatie van de natuurlijkheid van de advertentie en op begrip), komt overeen met de bevindingen van het enige eerdere experiment naar het effect van Engels versus Nederlands in personeelsadvertenties (Renkema et al., 2001) en van eerdere experimenten naar het effect van Engels versus Nederlands in productadvertenties (Dasselaar et al., 2005; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van den Brandt, et al., 2007; Smakman et al., 2009). Dit zou verklaard kunnen worden door de grote frequentie waarmee Engels in Nederland gebruikt wordt in deze twee advertentiegenres. Het gebruik van Engels is misschien zo gewoon dat het in deze twee genres geen persuasief

effect heeft. Waarom het gebruik van Engels in functiebenamingen wel symbolische effecten heeft, is niet duidelijk. Het zou kunnen zijn dat in zo'n geïsoleerde vorm de invloed van Engels groter is dan in een volledige advertentie met veel meer informatie.

In haar handboek over rekruteringsonderzoek wijst Barber (1998, pp. 8 en 144) op de noodzaak om het perspectief van organisaties op rekrutering te onderzoeken. Door de visie van opstellers van personeelsadvertenties op het gebruik van Engels aan het licht te brengen, hebben de interviews in hoofdstuk 5 een bijdrage geleverd aan dat type onderzoek. Waar het grootste deel van eerder onderzoek naar de invloed van personeelsadvertenties op lezers zich heeft gericht op *inhoudsaspecten* (zie hoofdstuk 1.2.4 en Barber, 1998, pp. 39-45), hebben de experimenten in hoofdstuk 7, door de invloed van Engels in plaats van Nederlands te onderzoeken, bijgedragen aan onderzoek naar het effect van *vormkenmerken* van personeelsadvertenties.

De empirische onderzoeken in deze studie hebben het oorspronkelijke model van de rol van Engels in personeelsadvertenties in Nederland (figuur 1.4) op een aantal punten bevestigd. Op een aantal andere punten hebben ze geleid tot suggesties voor aanpassing van het model, en op weer andere punten hebben ze laten zien dat verder onderzoek nog noodzakelijk is. Dit is weergegeven in een nieuw model (figuur 8.1).

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Figuur 8.1. Een nieuw model voor de rol van Engels in personeelsadvertenties in Nederland van zender naar ontvanger.

Hokjes met doorgetrokken lijnen en doorgetrokken pijlen geven aan dat het element in kwestie of het verband tussen elementen in deze studie onderzocht is en dat de relevantie ervan bevestigd is. Aan de *zenderkant* geldt dit voor de invloed van zowel (on)bewuste symbolische als (on)bewuste niet-symbolische redenen voor het gebruik van Engels die betrekking hebben op baan, organisatie, boodschap en doelgroep. Wat de *boodschap* betreft, geldt dit voor de invloed van factoren met betrekking tot baan, organisatie, boodschap en doelgroep op de mate waarin Engels gebruikt wordt in de personeelsadvertenties. Aan de *ontvangerkant* geldt dit voor de invloed van Engels op attitudes tegenover de baan en de boodschap en voor de invloed van Engels op begrip (van woorden and frases). Het gaat ook op voor de invloed van *context* op zowel de zender als de boodschap.

Het hokje met de dikgedrukte lijn geeft aan dat de invloed van (on)bewuste niet-symbolische redenen op het gebruik van Engels door *zenders* groter is dan de invloed van (on)bewuste symbolische redenen.

Vraagtekens in de hokjes geven aan dat het element in kwestie onderzocht is in deze studie, maar dat er geen verschillen waren in de bevindingen voor Engels en voor Nederlands. Aan de *ontvangerkant* geldt dit voor de activering van symbolische associaties door herkenning van Engels,

de invloed van Engels op attitudes tegenover de organisatie, de invloed van Engels op gedragsintenties, en de invloed van begrip van Engels op begrip van de hele advertentieboodschap.

Hokjes met stippellijnen en gestippelde pijlen geven aan dat het element of het verband tussen elementen niet is onderzocht in deze studie. Dit geldt voor een aantal elementen aan de *ontvangerkant*. Ten eerste geldt dit voor de herkenning van Engels. Het zou kunnen zijn dat bepaalde Engelse termen in grotendeels Nederlandse advertenties door de respondenten niet herkend werden als Engels, omdat ze deze woorden beschouwden als gebruikelijk in het Nederlands. Ten tweede is de overdracht van symbolische associaties op baan, organisatie, boodschap en doelgroep niet onderzocht. In het experiment met functiebenamingen werd weliswaar nagegaan in hoeverre associaties met Engelse en Nederlandse termen verschilden of overeenkwamen, maar er werd geen verband gelegd met de specifieke elementen baan, organisatie, boodschap en doelgroep uit het model. In het experiment met functiebenamingen werd ook niet onderzocht hoe de associaties verband hielden met de attitudes tegenover de baan, organisatie, boodschap (functiebenaming) en doelgroep. Een derde en vierde element die niet zijn bestudeerd, zijn de invloed van Engels op attitudes tegenover de doelgroep en de invloed van Engels op daadwerkelijk gedrag. Een vijfde element dat niet in het onderzoek is betrokken, is de invloed van begrip van Engels - via begrip van de boodschap - op attitudes tegenover baan, organisatie, boodschap en doelgroep. Tenslotte geeft een gestippelde pijl aan dat de invloed van *context* op de ontvanger niet is onderzocht.

Samenvattend kan gesteld worden dat de huidige studie heeft geleid tot empirische ondersteuning van een groot deel van het model, het model heeft verfijnd, maar tegelijkertijd ook aangegeven heeft welke aspecten van het model nog verder onderzocht dienen te worden.

Curriculum vitae

Frank van Meurs was born on 2 May 1961 in Schiedam, the Netherlands. In 1979 he received the Atheneum secondary school diploma from College Hageveld in Heemstede. He studied English Language and Literature at the University of Leiden between 1979 and 1989, with Translation Studies and Middle Dutch literature as subsidiary subjects. In 1982-1983, he was a Harting student at the University of Liverpool, where he studied English and also taught Dutch. He worked as a student assistant in the Department of English at Leiden University from 1986 to 1987 and as a junior lecturer from 1989 to 1990. In 1990, he started teaching English language proficiency at the Catholic University of Nijmegen, now Radboud University Nijmegen, first in the Departments of English and Business Communication Studies, and later exclusively at the Department of Business Communication Studies, where he has been a lecturer since 2003. From 2003 to 2008, he was granted research time to work on a PhD project on English in job advertisements in the Netherlands.

With Rick Tersmette, he translated Jonathan I. Israel, *Dutch Primacy in World Trade, 1585-1740* into Dutch (*Nederland als centrum van de wereldhandel 1585-1740*, Franeker: Van Wijnen, 1991). He was associate editor of *Turning Tides: Modern Dutch & Flemish Verse in English Versions by Irish Poets*, ed. Peter van de Kamp (Brownsville, OR: Story Line Press, 1994). In the area of literary history, he has published articles on medieval Dutch drama (in the journal *Literatuur*) and on an eighteenth-century Dutch translation of an adaptation of Shakespeare's *The Tempest* (in *Shakespeare Yearbook*). With his colleagues in the Department of Business Communication Studies, he has published articles on product recall notices, on Plain English, and on English and other foreign languages in Dutch product and job advertisements in *Document Design, English for Specific Purposes, ESP across Cultures, Journal of Advertising Research, Journal of Business Communication, Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, Onze Taal, Studies in Taalbeheersing, Technical Communication, Tekst[blad], Tijdschrift voor Taalbeheersing, Toegepaste Taalwetenschap in Artikelen, World Englishes*, and in volumes in Peter Lang's Linguistic Insights series.